The Outlook

OCTOBER 4, 1916

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THE STORY OF THE WAR

Material progress marked the work of the French and British troops on the western front near the river Somme during the week ending September 27. The most spectacular event in the week's fighting was the capture, on Monday, September 25, of the town of Combles. Occupied and fortified by the Germans, it had been "pocketed" by the French and British. In connection with its fall and that of the neighboring Thiepval some five thousand Germans were taken prisoners. The doom of Combles was pronounced when the heights in its neighborhood were taken. The advance of the French and British here seems as irresistible as that of the Germans around Verdun in the earlier weeks of their assault upon that fortress; but the Allied advance is more promising. Whereas around Verdun there was height after height that impeded the progress of German arms, in the region where the Allied offense is taking place the country is comparatively flat. Indeed, so great has the advance been on the Somme that it is declared that, in some parts of that region at least, the only intrenchments occupied by the Germans are those which have been dug under fire. There is reason for believing that the whole German line on this part of the front must before long retire.

The German attacks on England by Zeppelins have been resumed. On two successive nights a fleet of these air-ships dropped bombs and killed and wounded scores of noncombatants. They paid a severe price, however, for two of the Zeppelins were lost. In one case the crew perished; in the other the crew were taken prisoners by a constable and marched off to a concentration camp.

The center of interest, however, in the war at present, and probably for some time in the future, is in the east. The entry of Rumania in the war has given to Germany the opportunity for another offensive. As long as Rumania remained neutral she stood as a bulwark against both the Entente Allies and the Teutonic forces. When she became a belligerent against Germany, she offered another point of attack. The importance of this point of attack may be indicated by the fact that the German War Office sent into Rumania at the head of the Bulgarian and Teutonic forces their most efficient field general, Mackensen. It is he who cleared out Servia. If his forces going up through the Dobrudja could overrun Rumania, they would administer a heavy blow to Germany's enemies, for they would isolate that country and take Russia on the flank. During the week ending September 27, however, Mackensen's forces were halted. Their aim to control the railway across the Dobrudja has evidently been frustrated. Contradictory reports have been issued concerning the fighting; but the news is sufficient to make it clear that Germany is not having her own way with Rumania as yet.

THE SETTING OF THE TIDE

What the Germans are doing in Rumania with Bulgarian aid, and what they are attempting to do in other parts of the Balkans, together with their gradual withdrawal on the western front, may indicate that the main field of war is being transferred from the west to the east; and even that the final campaign will be fought out either in the Balkans or in Hungary. Some reasons for this opinion are as follows:

Germany started out, in part, to crush France, so that, as Bernhardi said, she should never cross Germany's path again. She has done all the crushing she can do. The battle of the Marne and Germany's failure at Verdun has made it clear even to Germany that she cannot do to Paris what she did to Louvain. She has inflicted great injury upon France, but her retreat to a shortened line will not prevent her continuing that injury by devastations in her retreat. She certainly has not crushed France.

She hates England, but her western cam-

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paign against England has been a failure. Her drive against Calais was stopped; her submarine warfare and her Zeppelin warfare have injured England somewhat and irritated her more, but they have done practically nothing to weaken her resources or make her less dangerous as an economic rival. Germany has injured her two western enemies, but she cannot destroy or even greatly weaken them. If we believe Napoleon's statement that the power of an army depends on its morale, probably both France and England are stronger military Powers than they were two years ago.

In the east Germany has conducted successfully her punitive expedition against Servia; she has won two allies in Turkey and Bulgaria since the beginning of the war; she has got free communication between herself and Turkey. If she can conquer Rumania and either conquer or win Greece, she may hope to do something to countervail her failure in the west. If she can keep Russia out of Constantinople, and so the Dardanelles closed to the Russian fleet, she might be in a position to threaten in a future war the Suez Canal. This, or something like this, might be in her hope.

On the other hand, if Russia drives the Turks out of Europe, gets Constantinople, and opens the Dardanelles, and if the Balkans come under the control, either by alliance or by conquest, of the Allies, and particularly if through the Balkans the Allies get possession of a part of Hungary and possibly break up the imperfectly united Austro-Hungarian Empire, the game of Germany is up, and she will have nothing to do except make the best terms she can with the victorious Allies.

If these surmises prove correct, then both Germany's hopes and her fears will compel her to put her strength into the eastern field, or, perhaps more accurately, the southeastern field.

To these considerations is to be added another: that if she can leave force enough in the west to maintain her shortened line of defense she can easily transfer her troops from west to east, and, if need be, from east to west back again, while the Allies cannot reinforce the eastern army by any draft made upon the western army without greatly hazarding the western front, which they cannot afford to do. This consideration furnishes an additional reason why Germany should, at least for the time being, concentrate her energies upon the war in the Balkans.

PÉRONNE

It is natural that the French papers, and other papers too, should be full of lamentation because of any destruction of churches and museums in the territory occupied by the Germans in France. It is therefore somewhat startling to find the Paris "Temps" indulging in no wail at all concerning the fate of Péronne. So much has been said lately about this city on the river Somme that persons not intimately acquainted with France have been led to suppose it to be an important place as regards architecture and art collections.

As to these features the "Temps" waxes humorous. There seems to be no good ecclesiastical architecture to destroy! As to secular architecture, the castle is only a "heavy barracks flanked by four pepper-box towers." Of the historical edifice where, in 929, Charles the Simple died of hunger nothing was left when, in 1468, Louis XI was made prisoner by Charles the Bold, and even of the Louis XI prison nothing is remaining to-day. The present château is only a "later and gross rebuilding in which neither art nor history is to be discerned."

The Péronne Museum has been supposed to house a fine collection of art objects. But the "Temps" replies that, in painting, "the old masters are represented only by valueless imitations," that there are "some portraits of the seventeenth century executed by local artists whose profession never rose above the commonplace," and as to modern painting, "the only thing which gives pleasure is a sketch by Neuville." As to sculpture, "the Museum has some rather decorative Louis XIV busts and two or three meaningless statues." The real interest, one might suppose, would be in the collection of bronzes, jewelry, and money from ancient Gaul. Yet here again "unhappily all is reproduction!" Thus the collection is worth less than the building which contains it—the City Hall, a much-restored Francis I edifice.

The true originality of Péronne, adds the "Temps," does not lie in its architecture and its art collections, but in its position at the sharp elbow which the Somne makes. Around this point the river becomes an immense marsh in which are little fertile islands, picturesque with trees and shrubbery in which nest thousands of birds and water-fowl.

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Once a superb red-brick rampart crowned with turf isolated the little city from the marsh and gave it what the "Temps" calls a "delicious physiognomy." Yet a short time ago the Péronne people decided to raze this great wall, which, as the "Temps" affirms, "gave it all its picturesqueness," and the work of demolition was not completed when the war broke out. "May the war," piously concludes the "Temps," "arrest this mutilation which was about to reduce Péronne to the level of a low-lying, uninteresting town!"

ARMENIA

The most recent development in the Armenian situation consists in the publication in this country of documents written by German agents of the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief Work. German missionaries have long been operating in and about Aleppo, in Asia Minor. They and the German Ambassador at Constantinople sympathize with the American endeavor to save the remnant of the Armenian race, forced by Germany's ally, Turkey, to flee from the Armenian territory northwest of Aleppo. The American Board's statement is as follows:

Workers of the American Board in Constantinople speak in the highest terms of the aid they are receiving from German missionaries in central and eastern Turkey in giving out food and clothing to the wretched people in that section. The American Consul at Damascus estimates that five hundred thousand people have been pushed into the vilayets of Aleppo and Damascus. The majority are women and children. They are slowly dying of starvation. The Consul appealed to the treasurer of the Board, Mr. W. W. Peet, in Constantinople, asking if a central relief depot could be established near Damascus. Mr. Peet writes his home office in Boston: "Our co-operation with the German missionaries for work in Aleppo has proved so helpful and satisfactory that I am desirous of making a like arrangement for Damascus in answer to this call. I therefore applied to the German Embassy to ask their assistance in securing workers for a Damascus depot. I have not yet had a reply to my application, but the Embassy has telegraphed their Consul and missionaries in that locality, asking that they assist us in this work."

Here are some details of the German reports:

In every tent there are sick and dying. Any one who cannot manage to get a piece of bread by begging eats grass raw and without salt. Many hundreds of the sick are without any tent and covering, in the open, under a glowing sun. I saw desperate ones throw themselves in grave trenches and beg grave-diggers to bury them.

At another place there is no grass; the locusts have consumed everything. The people were gathering locusts and eating them raw. Others were looking for roots of grasses. They catch stray dogs and like savages pounce upon dead animals, whose flesh they eat eagerly without cooking.

In Aleppo a German missionary reports housing as many boys and girls as possible, but with the menace always at hand of the Turkish Government's claim of a full right to dispose of children. In Der-Zor, near by, while a former Turkish officer had brought together several hundreds of children and cared for them, the first act of his successor was to send many deported people farther south, "where they must die of starvation and misery. . . . All those in need of help have been sent away from Der-Zor. How many we do not yet know, but it is said six thousand were sent southward on foot from Sepka."

These accounts are noteworthy, first of all, because they are German, and therefore not the product of bias against Germany; and, second, because they confirm the accounts of American missionaries. The situation is as bad as it can be. Unless we can secure entrance of food supplies into the regions affected, with distributers and with liberty to reach the distressed peoples with relief at the earliest moment, a large section of the Armenian race and of the Syrians involved may perish. The American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, with Dr. James L. Barton, of the American Board, as chairman, announces from its office at 70 Fifth Avenue, New York City, that it has collected something short of $1,200,000. In the distribution part has gone to Constantinople for uses throughout Asia Minor, part to Tiflis for the refugees in the Russian Caucasus, part to Persia for refugee Armenians and Syrians there, part to Beirût, and part to Egypt. The Committee is trying to secure a general response to the appeal for Armenian and Syrian relief issued by President Wilson. It is combining with the Red Cross in its appeal. In Syria it will work with and under the Red Cross, which has, we are glad to say, at last obtained formal permission from the Turkish Government to enter that region. It now remains to secure the permission of the Allies to pass through the

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blockade and to guarantee that supplies will not be used for the belligerents.

We believe that we have but to make the above facts known to insure a hearty response from all humane people.

LAFAYETTE DAY

We have already given an account of the celebration of the birthday of Lafayette on September 6 in New York City. To Mr. Maurice Léon, recording secretary of the New York Committee, we are indebted for information about similar celebrations in other parts of the country.

In Fall River, Massachusetts, a bronze equestrian statue of Lafayette was unveiled, preceded by a procession of four thousand members of various organizations of French-Canadian descent. The French Ambassador, M. Jusserand, was present and made an address. Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Mayor Kay, of Fall River, and ex-Governor Pothier, of Rhode Island, were also among the speakers. It is interesting to note that Senator Lodge concluded his address in the French language, while Governor Pothier's speech was entirely in French. The celebration concluded with a banquet.

In New Orleans there was an official municipal celebration, one of the features of which was the unveiling of a bust of Lafayette in one of the public squares. Acting Mayor Ricks, of the city of New Orleans, was the chairman of a memorial meeting in the evening, and he used a gavel made from a branch of a magnolia tree which was planted at Mount Vernon by Lafayette in 1821.

Two patriotic organizations, the Army and Navy Union and the Order of Washington, arranged and conducted a celebration at Washington, D. C. Among the speakers at Washington were some well-known Representatives of Congress.

In San Francisco the celebration was conducted by the Society of the Friends of France, which is raising a fund to erect a memorial in honor of Lafayette in the San Francisco Public Library.

In Providence, Rhode Island, flags were displayed on all the city buildings and memorial exercises were held in the North Burial Ground, in which two hundred French soldiers lie buried who died in their camp in Providence at the close of the Revolutionary War during an epidemic of typhoid.

In Tacoma, Washington, Lafayette Day was recognized by the unveiling of a marker on the Oregon trail. The achievements of the early French explorers in the Northwest made this form of honoring Lafayette's memory particularly appropriate. Governor Lister, of the State of Washington, presided at the exercises, which were participated in by the Daughters and Sons of the American Revolution.

Lafayette Day thus promises to become a National institution. Lafayette first came to the American colonies when he was nineteen years old. He made his last visit in 1824, at the age of sixty-seven, when he made a tour of the then existing twenty-four States and was greeted everywhere as a National hero. His sixty-eighth birthday was celebrated at the White House, where he was the guest of President Adams. After honors had been paid to him such as have never been paid before or since to any foreigner in this country, the Government sent him home in one of its naval vessels, called "Brandywine" after the Revolutionary battlefield on which he was wounded when fighting with Washington. As the Hon. Alton B. Parker, who presided at the New York municipal celebration, said on that occasion: "The celebration of ninety-two years ago in this city is one that it has been determined shall be continued from time to time on his birthday. It began last year. It is to go on in this country so long that people will understand that republics are not ungrateful to those who serve them both well and unselfishly."

MEXICAN MATTERS

We learn of a new bandit band in Mexico. They are called "Cedullistas," and are operating in sympathy with Villa. So far they have confined their operations mostly to the State of San Luis Potosí, much to the south of the State of Chihuahua.

During the past week various accounts of the fight at the city of Chihuahua have appeared. One, purporting to come from Brigadier-General George Bell, Jr., in command of the Fifth Brigade at El Paso, Texas, was to the effect that Villa captured the city of Chihuahua, liberated some two hundred prisoners, and after a stay of two hours, during which he had things his own way, evacuated the place, confiscating munitions and loot, and leaving the city with more men than he had when he entered. General Bell also has a report of a skirmish at Arena, ten miles south of Juarez—that is, ten miles south of

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our frontier. From El Paso also comes the news that in a battle with Villistas some thirty miles west of Chihuahua city the entire Carranza force of Colonel Zuasua, numbering several hundred, was wiped out.

A statement from General Obregon, the Mexican Minister of War, reiterates the account printed in The Outlook last week, namely, that the Villistas who attacked Chihuahua were routed with severe loss, and that after the battle General Trevino's troops were able to take part in the Independence Day parade.

Villa's movements are beginning to be of great interest to United States troops on the border, as they see a chance for real action. The talk of "going home" has changed to "going to Mexico."

In any event, the Villa activities cannot fail to have an important bearing upon the work of the Mexican-American International Commission, which has been in session at New London and which is hereafter to meet at Atlantic City. Perhaps they account for General Carranza's reported irritation at the slowness of action by the Commission. With regard to its work, the Commission has itself now made the following statement:

A frank interchange of opinion took place with reference to the measures which each country might take to prevent these irritating incidents, and whether it will be possible to establish closer co-operation between both civil and military authorities on the border in order to make life and property on both sides of the international line more secure. An interesting feature of the discussion . . . was the consideration of the neutrality laws of both countries, and especially whether the neutrality laws of the United States were adequate to prevent the constant conspiracies on American soil against established order in Mexico, and also to discourage the participation of Americans in Mexican factional conflicts. It was pointed out that a strengthening of the neutrality laws of the United States, making it an offense for an American citizen to participate in any way in a movement against a government with which the United States is at peace, would be very helpful to Mexico. The session was the beginning of a series in which the commission will consider the different possibilities of co-operation between the two Governments in relieving the causes of irritation.

GENERAL PERSHING

The sudden reappearance of the Villistas may change the plans of the Administration regarding the status of the expedition which was sent to Mexico under command of Brigadier-General Pershing with instructions to "get Villa, dead or alive."

President Wilson has now appointed General Pershing Major-General, succeeding Major-General Albert L. Mills, who recently died, and who was the first of the four new major-generals authorized by the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916. Excepting Major-General Leonard Wood and Brigadier-General Siebert, Major-General Pershing is the youngest general in the army. His first real field work was in the capture of Geronimo. In 1889 General Pershing rescued, without firing a shot, a party of cowboys when they were surrounded by hostile Zuñis, and he was commended formally for doing it. He was promoted for gallantry in action at El Caney in the Spanish-American War. As Adjutant-General of the Department of Mindanao and Jolo, in the Philippines, General Pershing did so well that he was made Military Governor of the islands. Hence when President. Roosevelt wanted a "live wire" brigadier-general in 1906, he found his man in Pershing.

Among the major-generals the only younger officers ranking Pershing are Wood and Funston. It may be remembered that General Funston became a brigadier-general at thirty-five years of age as a reward for his services in personally capturing Aguinaldo, the leader of the Philippine insurrection. Neither General Wood nor General Pershing, we are glad to add, is due for retirement under the age limit before the latter part of 1924.

With the announcement of the promotion of General Pershing, Secretary Baker made public the names of four colonels whom the President had decided to appoint to be brigadier-generals to fill existing or impending vacancies. They are: Colonel Swift, of the General Staff Corps, on duty at the Army Service School at Fort Leavenworth; Colonel French, of the General Staff Corps, on duty along the Mexican border; Colonel Greble, of the Sixth Field Artillery, at Douglas, Arizona; and Colonel Treat, of the General Staff Corps, on duty at the Army War College. Before the end of the present year there will be at least one other vacancy, namely, that which will occur when General Evans goes on the retired list.

The National Defense Act above mentioned provided for the addition of sixteen new brigadier-generals to the army within

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five years. Four of these were appointed soon after the bill became a law, representing this year's increment of the authorized increase. The other brigadier-generals now appointed fill, as has been stated, existing or impending vacancies.

THE NIGARAGUAN ELECTIONS

We cannot get rid of "abroad." It is useless to quote George Washington any longer as advising the stay-at-home policy. Since his day we have been appealed to by countries pathetically dependent upon us—Cuba, Haiti, Santo Domingo, Nicaragua, Panama, China.

The Nicaraguan situation is a case in point. The Presidential campaign there, ending with the elections on October 1, has been attended with disorder. A successor to President Adolfo Diaz had to be chosen. His term expires on December 31, and, under the Constitution, the Nicaraguan President is not eligible for re-election.

There have been four candidates in the field. The Conservatives named Señor Emiliano Chamorro, formerly Minister at Washington. The Progressives nominated Señor Rosendo Lopez, a wealthy planter. The "Government party" named Dr. Carlos Cuadra Pasos, and the "Liberty party" Dr. Juliano Irias. These nominations were made last June. Dr. Pasos renounced his candidacy to accept the post of Minister to the United States, and Dr. Irias resigned his candidacy because of outbreaks in which several persons were killed, and which were also marked by attempts on his life.

In consequence of these disturbing conditions President Diaz called the Nicaraguan Congress in extraordinary session to enact new electoral laws calculated to bring about radical reforms, and to have these laws effective by October 1.

Our State Department, it is understood, has also let it be known in Nicaragua that our Government does not want, and will not have, any revolution or serious disturbances there. A Legation guard of a hundred American marines has been stationed at Managua, the Nicaraguan capital, and has been there since the latest revolution, thus insuring unwonted peace throughout the country. Additional marines, it was said, would be sent should any trouble threaten which the Legation guard could not control. Two of our gunboats are already in the Bay of Fonseca, off the Nicaraguan Pacific coast, and more will be sent if necessary. The State Department's positive policy throughout the Caribbean zone would indicate that its purpose with regard to Nicaragua will be effectively pursued.

Nicaragua has found financial as well as political peace by reliance upon this country. When the Nicaraguan Government appealed to President Taft to name some one who might become an efficient Collector of Customs, he suggested Clifford D. Ham, of Iowa. The office was offered to Colonel Ham, who accepted it, and has brought order out of chaos. Nor has Colonel Ham confined himself entirely to the collection of taxes. Not the least important of his activities has been his co-operation with the commandant of the port of Corinto, on the Pacific, in the sanitary cleansing of that town and in the installation of a permanent experienced sanitary inspector.

The work which Sir Robert Hart did in China when that country was particularly dependent upon England, and the work which Mr. Pulliam and Colonel Ham have done in the Dominican Republic and in Nicaragua for the benefit both of foreign bondholders and for Dominican and Nicaraguan financial self-respect and salvation, are beyond price.

THE NEW ARGENTINE PRESIDENT

Last June the Argentinians held their Presidential election. In July the Senators and Deputies, in joint session, after a scrutiny of the ballots, proclaimed Dr. Hipolito Irigoyen President, he having received 152 out of the total vote of 298 in the electoral college chosen by the fourteen provinces. He is to be inaugurated next week. He succeeds Dr. Victorino de la Plaza, who in turn followed President Saenz Peña.

The result of the election of 1916 is of peculiar interest to the people of Argentina, and not without interest to those outside, for Señor Irigoyen is the first Radical to become President of that Republic. For a score of years he has been leader of the Radical party, whose principal reason-of-being is to fight for fair elections. The party has grown apace, and has now in the Argentine Congress a plurality, but not a majority. That majority is a coalition of Conservative, Democratic, and Socialist votes.

Dr. Irigoyen has the rather unusual distinction of being at once a ranchman and a

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CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Racey in the Montreal Daily Star

THE DILATORY SHOPPER

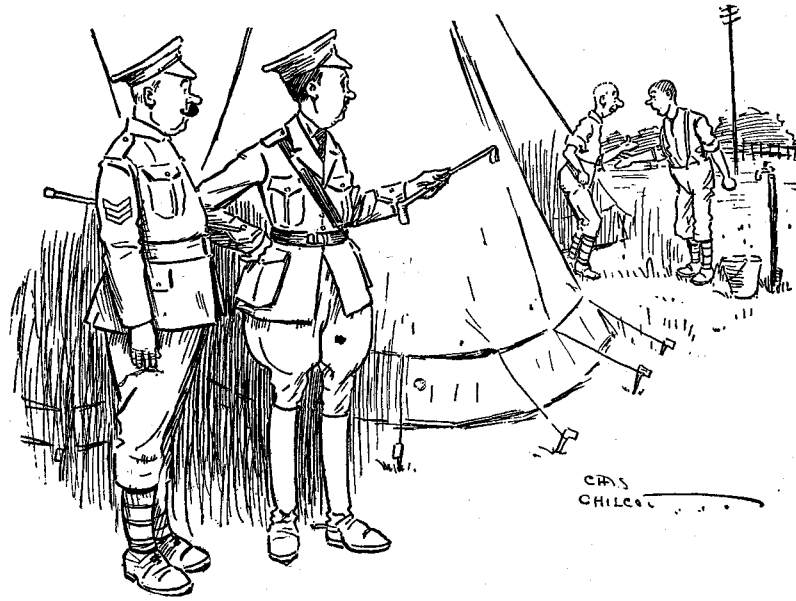
"Sorry, sir, but bargain day has passed; you should have come earlier."

IT'S TOO LATE FOR GREECE TO GET A REAL BARGAIN

From Hellas (Athens)

A GREEK CARTOON SHOWING GREECE AS A PLAYTHING IN THE HANDS OF MARS

From the Bystander (London)



Officer: "Sergeant, stop those two men quarreling. We don't want any of these beastly fighting men here!"

PRIVATE FIGHTING NOT ALLOWED AT THE FRONT!

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CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Pease in the Newark Evening News

CLUMSY SHOES

Harding in the Brooklyn Eagle

SYMPATHY STRIKES

THE NEW YORK LABOR IMBROGLIO

Carter in the New York Evening Sun

WHEN THE KING WILL COME BACK TO HIS OWN!

HOPE WAITING ON ACHIEVEMENT

Pease in the Newark Evening News

AGAIN THAT BAD PENNY

VILLA'S GHOST WILL NOT DOWN!

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professor. He made a fortune in land deals and lives part of the time on his large *estancia*, or farm. The rest he spends in Buenos Aires, where he holds the professorship of Civic Instruction at the Escuela Normal de Mujeres, the normal school for women.

Another unusual distinction marks Señor Irigoyen. He has regularly given his salary as professor to the Sociedad de Beneficencia, which may be called the Charity Organization Society of Buenos Aires, and now proposes to turn over to it his Presidential salary. The Society should thus receive a very important addition to its revenues, for the salary of the Argentine President is 9,000 pesos (over $3,900) a month, and the Presidential term is six years. The present ratio between the peso and our currency is about two and three-tenths pesos to one dollar.

While we do not look for any notable change in the general foreign policy of the Argentine in consequence of the change of President, it is believed that a Radical régime will favor a reduction of tariff duties, a movement towards small land holdings, and a broadening and bettering of educational facilities, in addition to its insistence upon the guaranty of an honest ballot. The increasing eminence of Argentina in South America, economically and educationally, makes any development in that Republic of moment to all the other American republics, whether in the south or in the north.

PRESIDENT WILSON ENTERS THE CAMPAIGN

Nominally addressing the Wilson Business Men's National League, but really speaking to the whole country, President Wilson, on Saturday, September 23, at his summer residence, Shadow Lawn, at Long Branch, New Jersey, made what has been termed the opening speech of his campaign.

Accepting the combat offered by Mr. Hughes, President Wilson made the chief subject of his speech the so-called Eight-Hour Law. The effort to settle the controversy between the railways of the country and their employees he termed "an experience which distressed me." During that controversy, while arbitration was being discussed, he said that he "had this sad thought: Arbitration is a word associated with the dealings of hostile interests. It is an alternative of war. There ought to be no such thing as the contemplation of hostility as between men whose interests are the same and who should co-operate together." So it came upon him that the real problem was to bring the two sides to understand and believe in one another. The President recounted the experiences and feelings that he had as he tried to do this. The first thing that he stood for was the eight-hour day, because a man does better work within eight hours than he does in a more extended day, and because the eight-hour day is in accordance with the "judgment of society" and "the vote of every Legislature in America that has voted upon it." How much is it going to cost? is the next question. The only way to answer that question is to try it, the President said; and he cited the eighty-cent gas case, in which the Supreme Court said that the only way to decide whether eighty-cent gas was confiscatory was to go ahead and manufacture it at that price. So, likewise, he said to the railways that when they asked for arbitration on the eight-hour day they were asking for an "arbitration of a conjecture, of an opinion, of a forecast of the figures of experts upon an entirely different experience." So he asked both sides to consent to an eight-hour day, and, since the railway managers rejected it, he got Congress to put it into law. He urged this eight-hour day, he declares, because he had learned that "the whole temper of the legislative body of the United States was in favor of the eight-hour day." The President added that the real thing to settle was what rights the hundred million people of the United States had, and that the business of government is to see that no other organization is as strong as itself.

It was evident in Mr. Wilson's speech that he wished to impress his hearers with the idea that this eight-hour legislation was not forced upon Congress by the brotherhoods, but that it was a product of his own conception of right and justice, voluntarily offered to the people of the Nation.

MR. HUGHES REPLIES TO THE PRESIDENT

With this view of the matter Mr. Hughes in his speeches in the Middle West has been vigorously taking exception.

He charges the Administration with dealing in "compromising phrases in the statutes apparently intended to mean one thing to one set of men to get their votes, and another thing to another set of men to allay their fears." Mr. Hughes pointed out that this

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so-called Eight-Hour Law does not deserve the name. "It does not provide an eight-hour work-day," said Mr. Hughes at Dayton; "it does not limit the hours of labor. It leaves to the railway companies the privilege to employ men for just as long a time as they were employed before." He declared that in the passage of the Act to promote conciliation and arbitration, signed during this Administration, the law provides for "arbitration with respect to wages, conditions of employment, and hours of labor." He therefore asserted that Mr. Wilson's statement that this matter was not arbitrable was extraordinary. He protested against "any endeavor to confuse the thought of America by talking about an eight-hour work-day when nothing of the sort has been enacted," but only a change in the schedule of wages. He pointed out that he was not dealing with the merits of the controversy, but with the principle that a controversy of this kind, whatever its merits, should be settled in accordance with the facts, and that no legislative body should pass such a law without knowing whether it was right. Answering Mr. Wilson's reference to the eighty-cent gas law, he pointed out that he himself, Mr. Hughes, acted as counsel in that case, "wrote an exhaustive report on the cost of making gas, and on every matter relating to the propriety of that rate, and that the Legislature acted only after a most careful and exhaustive consideration of every fact involved." And Mr. Hughes added: "Think of that as being cited as a precedent!"

As for the argument that if it had not been for the surrender of Congress to the demands of the brotherhoods we should have been involved in great difficulty, he made two replies, as follows: "In the first place, I say to those who counsel surrender in such places, How much are you willing to give up? What does it mean? Any demand, without knowing the facts? How far will you go in having legislation without principle? As I said the other night, you think that you will accumulate courage to make a stand somewhere by continual surrenders along the line. I say, in the next place, that when a fundamental principle of government is involved, stand and see what public opinion, well directed, when an immediate, prompt, and thorough investigation is obtained, will do in your support."

Mr. Hughes also continued his attacks on the Administration for its course in Mexico.

SOME PRIMARY RESULTS

Just a week after the ballots were cast in the New York primaries it was announced that Mr. Calder had won the Republican nomination for the New York Senatorship against Mr. Bacon by 9,007 votes. An amusing episode in this Senatorship fight was the fact that for the Senatorship nomination on the ticket of the American party (the organization originated by former Governor Sulzer) Mr. Bacon was, at last reports, the probable winner by twenty-three votes to twenty-two votes for his opponent, the Democratic nominee, Mr. McCombs. Of course Mr. Bacon (who had no idea he was running on this ticket) repudiates the nomination, though by law, if he is nominated, his name will have to remain on the ballot.

In New Jersey the primary vote cast on September 26 was very close in almost all of the more important contests. The only important contest in which the result appeared conclusive on the day after the balloting was that for the Democratic Senatorial nomination. In that, Senator Martine, the present incumbent, was ahead of his opponent, Attorney-General Wescott (universally regarded as President Wilson's choice) by a vote of about two to one. This was interpreted by all Republicans and some Democrats as indicating the President's political weakness in his own State.

The Democratic candidate for Governor, on the other hand, Mr. Wittpenn, a strong supporter of the President, was nominated without even a contest.

A NEW UNION CHURCH

In 1893 representatives of the missionary boards of the Protestant churches of the United States and Canada met and formed a Foreign Missions Conference, which, except in 1900, the year of the Ecumenical Council, has ever since held annual sessions. The remarkable growth of the spirit of unity among Christian workers in non-Christian lands—not to say in all lands—is illustrated by the work and accomplishments of this Conference.

At the meeting of 1904 the veteran Baptist missionary to China, the Rev. Dr. William Ashmore, in a memorable address, called the attention of the Conference to the close relation which European communities in Asia bear to the missionary enterprise. The deplorable religious condition of many of these communities, he pointed out, was both a re-

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proach and a menace to the Christian Church. A spirited debate followed, and a committee of three was chosen to consider the responsibility of mission boards to these neglected communities.

During the next few years men like Robert Speer, John W. Wood, James L. Barton, John R. Mott, W. J. Schieffelin, A. E. Marling, and others served on the Anglo-American Communities Committee, and under their fostering care Union Churches in Yokohama, Kobe, Peking, Mexico City, Rio de Janeiro, Colombo, and Tokyo were encouraged to organize, stimulated to self-support, subsidized when in need, furnished with devoted pastors, and given the moral support as well as the inspiring counsel of this large body of home-land leaders. The expenses of this work have been borne by a number of co-operating missionary societies, sixteen of which, together with the World's Sunday-School Association, the Young Men's Christian Association International Committee, and the Foreign Department of the Young Women's Christian Association, united last year to raise the required $5,000. The largest annual grant to churches aided is $1,000, sometimes with assistance towards the traveling expenses of the pastor to his field of labor.

The results already achieved in this movement have been far-reaching and the effect upon missionary work notable. One of the latest of these enterprises to be started has been the Union Church of Tokyo. Here the English-speaking constituency numbers some nine hundred, one-half of whom are missionaries and their families, while the other half is made up of business men of large interests, professors and teachers in the greatest student center of the world, and a small number of stenographers and commercial assistants. This church has never had a settled pastor, meets in borrowed quarters, and has practically none of the many activities associated with the idea of a modern church, yet it faces an opportunity of such moment that its members have pledged an annual budget of $2,000, to which the Foreign Missions Conference has added an annual grant of $1,000.

This has enabled the church to issue a call to Dr. Doremus Scudder, pastor of Central Union Church in Honolulu, which he has accepted. Dr. Scudder, in taking up this work, is only returning to an old field. He knows Japan and the Japanese, and he knows the Pacific coast. In his new work in Tokyo he may confidently be expected to be an influential factor in promoting understanding and friendship between the two countries, which have, unfortunately, sometimes misunderstood each other.

CHEMICAL PREPAREDNESS

In New York City, at the Grand Central Palace, an industrial Chemical Exhibition opened on September 25. Such a show is worth seeing, not only by the chemist, but also by the man in the street who knows nothing at all about chemistry.

First of all, such a tyro finds himself in the presence of unwonted power. He feels it, though he sees a mere shrimp of a boy with bright, ruddy face, apparently fresh from the fields, operating an electrical machine upon which the sign, "High Voltage; Do Not Touch," was not necessary to awe the bystander. And the bystander also feels power as he goes from exhibit to exhibit, now scrutinizing curious-looking powders and liquids which have proved of amazing efficacy in the manufacture of explosives, and now finding himself face to face with such splendid humane inventions as the miner's safety lamp, for instance.

As to this invention, just a century ago Sir Humphry Davy announced the principles of a safety lamp, and to this day those principles underlie the construction of all safety oil lamps. Before Sir Humphry's time, candles or oil torches of a primitive type were n general use. They served their purpose until the workman reached the lower levels of mines. There the inflammable gases and coal dust produced a danger with which mine officials were powerless to cope. The Davy lamp came as a salvation. During the last century, however, no other practical form of safety lamp was produced until the perfection of the portable battery. The most modern lamp, therefore, is an electric lamp. It ought to be as much an advance over the Davy lamp as that was an advance over the oil torch. Just what connection this lamp has with chemistry the bystander does not know, but supposes that it has some connection, if it is in this exhibition.

To an American observer, it was gratifying to see samples of artificial leather—some of particularly artistic color and texture—exhibited, and to be thus informed that Germany is not the only country in which the chemist competes successfully with nature.

Another exhibit to attract the attention of

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laymen to whom a technical knowledge of chemistry is denied was that of glassware; a new kind of resistant glass was shown, so tough that one might think it could be used for frying-pans. At least that is the claim of the makers.

Another exhibit, all too inadequate, however, was that of the manufacture of pulp. In these days of the alarmingly increased cost of paper every one is interested in its manufacture and few know just how the pulp which underlies that manufacture is made. Still fewer realize that, owing to the also greatly increased price of pulp, chemistry is now being applied to the fibers of waste wood. From them the Germans make "kraft" paper—a strong brown paper for which immense quantities of yellow pine waste are already available in our Southern States.

In the case of dyestuffs, we have been discovering our dependence upon other nations, Germany especially, but we have now supplemented this by our independence at least in so far as ordinary colors are concerned. Manufacturers say that the demand for those colors will be met the coming year from our own products. Incidentally, however, the high duty on dyestuffs to take effect after the war is a far-sighted legislative step.

COKE BY-PRODUCTS

But the most impressive exhibit in the Chemical Exhibition, we are inclined to think, is that of the by-products of coke. When we speak of coke, we think of it as the product of coal and as a clean and efficient fuel. Indeed, the use of coke is rapidly increasing. But what we have not realized is that in the manufacture of coke we have been wasting important by-products. "When coke alone was required," as it is stated in a pamphlet issued by a large manufacturer of coke ovens, "the inexpensive beehive oven, located where coal was cheap, served the purpose. When public lighting gas alone was required, the very simple and inefficient gas retort sufficed." But that was in time past. The present time, characterized by conservation and efficiency, demands something different now that the value of the coke by-products is realized.

Some of these by-products are of great value in chemical industries, but notably two are of great public interest. One of these, sulphate of ammonia, is an important fertilizer. The other is nitrogen, indispensable in the making of munition nufacturers do not think that this cou d be in danger of a nitrogen famine in ar if we were cut off from outside s Instead of a Government nitrate pla im that the valuable supply of nitro oal in this country, as controlled by 's, is adequate to meet the Nation's eeds in any reasonable contingency.

From coke is also derived or high explosives. In the course of ng this particular by-product Dr. H former President of the American Che ciety, said, at its session held simulta with the Exposition, that toluol shoul ored by the Government in large quan As the war orders cease and the ovens nue to increase production there will be, id, a lowering of price. "The potentia e of this hydrocarbon in munitions," he l, "is too great to allow its sacrifice as a fuel or illuminant." Moreover, he pointed out that the presence of a great quantity of this as a military resource of the Nation would have a moral effect that would justify the investment as a preparedness measure. Dr. Herty also urged co-operation between the Government and the chemical experts of America in these words:

> Modern warfare is largely dependent upon the successful work of chemists, not alone in the direct production of munitions, but through research, in husbanding the resources of the country and in increasing knowledge which in times of stress may be vital to the Nation. In view of the now well-recognized fundamental character of such work, the military authorities should formulate a definite policy in regard to the chemist, whereby in times of war his services may best be applied to the advantage of his country.

At the American Chemical Society's meeting General Crozier, Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance in the War Department, justly emphasized the necessity which confronts the Government of drafting the National resources in chemical knowledge. He declared that no room for doubt remained as to the importance of chemical engineers in the conduct of war. He added that private industry should be encouraged to co-operate with the Government in intelligent preparation for such military exigencies as might arise.

Here, indeed, is the great lesson of this exhibition—namely, what the war has taught. Two years of war have forced us to make an advance in chemical industries which it

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has taken other lands two decades to accomplish.

To the sense of standing in the presence of power which first comes to the bystander there is now added another emotion, the consciousness of efficient patriotism.

CHINA AND JAPAN

The relations of Japan to China, to Russia, and even to Great Britain, in the East are becoming more and more interesting. Mr. George Kennan, in The Outlook for September 20, pointed out how and why Japan and Russia have agreed to pool their interests in the Orient. Great Britain has larger financial interests at stake in China and the Far East than both Japan and Russia combined, and the interrelations of Japan, Russia, and China are a matter of serious import to Great Britain. But for the moment the world is more particularly interested in the attitude of Japan to China and the unconcealed antagonism of China to Japan. Mr. Kennan says that China is Japan's "Mexico," and that in considering the relations of the two countries fair-minded Americans should bear in mind what they think are the duties and rights of the United States with regard to Mexico.

It is quite apparent that Japan does regard China as requiring special supervision, if not intervention. In a recent issue we reported certain demands which had been made by the Government of Japan upon the Chinese Government. We now learn that Japan has made still further requests, as follows:

1. A reduction of the Chinese forces stationed in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, with a view to preventing future complications.
2. More Japanese police officers to be employed by Chinese authorities in South Manchuria.
3. Japanese officers to be attached to Chinese forces stationed in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.
4. Japanese officers to be employed at military schools.
5. The Chinese Governor of Mukden to make in person formal apologies to the Japanese Governor at Dairen and the Japanese Consul at Mukden for the attack by Chinese soldiers on Japanese soldiers.

We are informed by Japanese authorities in this country that the last three of the foregoing desires of Japan were put in the form of requests, and not of demands. Unfortunately, the word or phrase which means "polite request" in the Chinese and Japanese languages also means "peremptory demand." Under all the circumstances, we do not think it strange that the Chinese people regard these "requests" as "demands." Japan is firmly established in Korea and Manchuria on the east; she is now asking for what is practically dominating power in Mongolia on the north; she is thus slowly, but perhaps surely, surrounding China.

The Outlook has several times stated its own view of Japanese ascendency in the Orient. It is this.

As we believe in an Occidental Monroe Doctrine which maintains that the destinies of the Western Hemisphere are to be directed by the inhabitants of that hemisphere, so we believe in an Oriental Monroe Doctrine which means that the destinies of the Orient are to be directed by its people. Through efficiency, organization, political stability, industrial resources, and military strength the United States is the constituted champion and protector of the Occidental Monroe Doctrine. For the same reasons the Japanese regard themselves, and should be regarded by the rest of the world, as the champions of the Oriental Monroe Doctrine.

But if any Administration of the United States were to seize upon the Monroe Doctrine as an excuse or a machine for the exploitation of inhabitants of Mexico, Central America, or South America, we should not cease to condemn that Administration. So, if Japan, as the leader and champion of the East, endeavors to exploit China, it should be condemned.

There are, of course, two parties of political thought in Japan, as there are in all other parts of the civilized world. There are autocratic imperialists and international liberals, as there are in the United States, in Great Britain, and in Germany. The imperialistic and autocratic party has got control of Germany and "Prussianized" it. There is some danger that a similar political philosophy within Japan may seek thus to "Japanize," if we may coin the phrase, the Orient. This is a danger to which the friends of Japan are as alert as the friends of China. Unfortunately, the recent requests above reported give some color to the suspicion in China, as well as in the Western countries, that the Pan-Japan party is at the moment in the ascendant. We believe the best minds of Japan are aware of the dangers of adopting

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the Prussian theory of international relations. Pan-Japanism would, in the long run, we are convinced, be as disastrous to Japan as Pan-Germanism has been to Germany.

BOTH

We once knew a little boy who, when he was asked by his mother whether before he went to bed he would have a song or a story, or at dinner whether he would have pudding or fruit for dessert, invariably answered, "Both." He was a wise philosopher. Ralph Barton Perry, Professor of Philosophy in Harvard University, in his volume of essays on the reconciliation of liberty and discipline, "The Free Man and the Soldier,"[1] adopts this little boy's philosophy. Wiser than the knight of the legend, when the question arises whether the shield is of gold or of silver he invites his opponent to look with him on both sides of the shield and discover that it is both gold and silver. This philosophy of "Both" he states clearly in the preface:

> Half-truths hold the stage and divide the allegiance of mankind among them. . . . Optimist and pessimist, anarchist and reactionary, atheist and bigot, feminist and misogynist, these are some of the character parts which the human mind admires and loves to assume. The present crisis in human affairs has given a fearful urgency to two great human problems. First, how shall one be secure and yet peaceful? Second, how shall we act in concert and yet remain free individuals? In each case the solution of the problem requires the reconciliation of two indispensable values. And yet men divide themselves into parties and become blind to one of these values through excess of zeal for the other.

This philosophy of "Both" runs through and unites these twelve essays; most of them illustrate and apply to different questions this method of reconciliation. Thus:

Shall we believe in free man or soldier? Both. They are not inconsistent. Organization is not inconsistent with freedom, but promotes it. China lacks individual freedom and yet "is notable among the nations for its lack of military discipline. France, on the other hand, was for centuries the most soldierly nation of Europe. . . . Yet France is a perpetual source of novelty, of modernisms and futurisms, of those departures from tradition and type, those excesses and daring conceits which scandalize and inspire, and which spring from a free mind roaming at large in its world." Our own freedom has been won by and embodied in organization. "Liberty of the press, trial by jury, freedom of speech, popular government, self-respecting civic autonomy, . . . are collective achievements, founded in organization and secured by organization. We do not owe them to our laxity and incohesiveness, but to constitutions and to laws." A large standing army is inconsistent with freedom. So is a volunteer service accompanied with conscription whenever necessity arises. But universal military duty is no more inconsistent with freedom than jury duty or taxation. It is inconsistent with *laissez-faire;* but *laissez-faire* is condemned by the experience of every community which has tried it. "*Laissez-faire* fosters a complacent selfishness among the successful, an aggressive selfishness among the hopeful, an envious selfishness among those who are unsuccessful, and a bitter selfishness among those who are hopeless. If this be individualism, the less of it the better."

Militarism or pacifism, which alternative shall the Nation accept? Neither or both. Neither: if by militarism we mean the spirit which glorifies war as a biological, sociological, and moral necessity, and by pacifism we mean "Safety first." Both: if by pacifism we mean the spirit which seeks peace and pursues every honorable means to attain it, and by militarism we mean equipping the Nation with power and endowing it with the spirit which will make it prompt, energetic, and self-denying in the fulfillment of its duty to protect its citizens in their right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, and also will inspire it to take its share with other nations of the world in promoting peace founded on a world protection of those rights.

War may be a duty to be bravely entered on in defense of liberty and justice. "No man should announce himself an advocate of non-resistance who is not prepared to acquiesce in the violation of his wife or daughter. No woman can be at heart non-resistant unless she means that she is willing to surrender her child to torture. No American can renounce the appeal to arms unless he can think with equanimity of the extinction of his race or the crushing of those institutions which now stir his civic pride and loyalty." But if war is sometimes a necessity, it is a

[1] The Free Man and the Soldier. By Ralph Barton Perry, Professor of Philosophy in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.40.

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regrettable necessity. "War is a disease to which the race is peculiarly liable in its infancy, and from which it may hope to secure immunity in its maturity. . . . Viewed in this light, the soldier is the symbol, not of human attainment, but of affliction and painful necessity. He is as much out of place in the perfected society as the rat-catcher or the policeman." Nor is there any incurable propensity to war. "Though there be an instinct of pugnacity, there is no instinct of war. War is only one of divers ways in which the instinct of pugnacity may find expression. One may be equally pugnacious in the interest of saving souls or eradicating disease. One may even be pugnacious in the cause of peace." A cowardly fear of war, a fatalistic acquiescence in war, are equally evil.

Is war just or unjust? Both. That is, sometimes one, sometimes the other. There is a general principle by which the question respecting any particular war can be answered. "The righteous war is that waged in behalf of a higher order in which both of the warring parties and others of their rank may live together in peace. If one man restrains another, he must ask no more for himself than he concedes to his enemy. This modicum which is consistent with a like privilege in others he calls his right, and the law eventually defines it and invents special agents for its protection." A war to defend this right—or, let us add, to fulfill the duty laid upon the nation of defending the rights of its citizens—is a justifiable war. It may be just when waged to defend the rights of others than citizens. Lafayette's participation in the American Revolution was right. All righteous war is war upon lawlessness, and it may be just "when undertaken in the interest of an international system or league of humanity."

The antithesis of the philosophy of "Both" is the philosophy of intolerance. And the philosophy of intolerance and what it has led to demonstrate the justice and wisdom of the philosophy of "Both." According to the pagan idea, the god of any special religion must be a special god. Such a religion protects its own god from sacrilege, but admits the sacredness of other gods for other peoples. But Christianity has but one God. It is sacrilegious to admit the existence of any other god, and it was natural for Christians holding this view to show themselves intolerant toward all worship of other gods and toward all false worship of the true God and all false teaching concerning him. The religious wars of the Middle Ages grew out of the attempt to impose the one religious worship and doctrine on an objecting people. What the religion of Rome attempted in the Middle Ages the culture of Germany is attempting in the twentieth century. "Germany presents the remarkable spectacle of a modern nation which regards itself as the chosen people of civilization; chosen to save the world, not in the world's way, but in its own way, the German way. . . . It has precisely the same effect upon the uninitiated as though a familiar companion were suddenly to say: 'Oh, by the way, you know *I* am *God*.' Such a remark at once renders social relations impossible. If one believes, then one may bow down and worship. Otherwise, one must either fly for one's life or employ forcible restraint."

Germany has taken up arms to enforce by war on Europe "Kant's view of patriotism as the will that the end of humanity 'shall be first realized in the particular nation to which we ourselves belong, and that this achievement *thence* spread over the entire race.' The extraordinary thing is this proprietary interest in civilization. It is as though one claimed a sort of concession in perpetuity to bottle the essence of civilization and sell it under a trade name." The remedy for this intolerance is the philosophy of "Both:" the belief that while mankind is imperfect there must be different opinions and different experiments of living; that no man and no group of men are wise enough to know the whole truth or large enough to exemplify the whole life of humanity; that truth and life are to be obtained by a spirit of catholicity, by mutual respect, by the acknowledgment by each nation, and, let us add, by each religious denomination, that other nations and other denominations possess that power of judgment and self-determination which constitutes the very essence of manhood.

The philosophy of "Both" is very different from the philosophy of indifference, which affirms that it makes no difference what a man believes. It is one thing to declare that there is some truth which is trying to express itself in all creeds, however imperfectly that expression may be effected, and quite another thing to declare that there is no truth in any creed or that it makes no difference whether there is any truth or not. The philosophy

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of "Both" is very different from neutralism: refusing to take sides and reserving judgment in the presence of a great struggle. This is "an easy-going policy, for it saves the pain of decision and permits the mind to muddle along in a state of flabby vacillation and procrastination. . . . If one is to stand aside because a problem is complicated, one may as well go into a hermit's cell and be done with it. To be effective in this world is to hazard a judgment and to commit one's self to it."

We have given here a very imperfect interpretation of Professor Perry's philosophy of "Both." We hope that it may prove sufficient to send some of our readers to his interesting book that they may read it for themselves.

A MODERN PIPER

The appearance in a slender book[1] of Mr. Stephen Chalmers's sketch of Stevenson, "The Penny Piper of Saranac," which first saw the light in the pages of The Outlook, has given opportunity to some of the radical, up-to-date school of novelists to speak slightingly of the author of "Prince Otto." The immense popularity of Stevenson has not escaped the reaction which, for a time at least, overtakes all the favorites of fortune in the arts; he is paying the price of some one's praise and much good luck, to say nothing of the instinctive dislike on the part of the unsuccessful who "take it out" of their more fortunate predecessors or contemporaries by pointing out the casual nature of popularity, the crudity of public taste, and the lack of that seriousness which gives many modern novels the solemnity of text-books.

Stevenson was a piper—that is the head and front of his offending. He was an artist who wrote to give pleasure; he filled no chair of sociology, he did not give instruction in sexology, and, although a sick man, he was not morbidly curious about moral disease. In spite of pains and limitations which would have sent most men into invalidism, he gave the life he dramatized not only the active virtues, but gayety and buoyancy. He made play of work; but he never played with the greater realities of life. Avoiding the rôle of the moralist, he made a dramatic study of the struggle between good and evil in a man's nature more searching and terrifying than the picture of punishment and judgment to come of the heavy-handed Scotch Calvinists who preceded him; and in half a dozen short stories he made the payment of the wages of death to sin appallingly vivid.

But it must be frankly confessed that he was a romanticist, and his sin has found him. He escaped the doom which the newest school of fiction has pronounced on the Mid-Victorians by coming on the scene in the twilight of the age of Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, Meredith, and Hardy. But, like those novelists, he was under the impression that cause and effect govern fiction as they govern real life, that the element of story—which is simple dramatic sequence—survives into the modern age, and that the narrative of a life, however obscure and commonplace, finds its analogy much oftener in a river than in a lake. He believed that reserve was often akin to romance, and that drapery was more artistic than nakedness.

Among some of the younger novelists the favorite word for moral conviction is *prejudice*, and the first article of faith in their working creed is that to see life a novelist must be without "prejudice." The fact that, as a rule, the greater writers have been unable to see life without seeing in it the play of a tremendous and irresistible moral element—a "power not ourselves that makes for righteousness"—counts with these younger novelists simply as evidence of the blindness of those who lived before the flood of recent sex knowledge and interest. To the cult which is trying to convince the world that Oscar Wilde's immense cleverness was genius, and that offenses which lay the heaviest burden on charity give his career unique interest, the manliness, pluck, and sanity of Stevenson are the signs of the moral *bourgeois* in him.

But it remains true that the fetid air of vice, the fever of passion divorced from love, sooner or later sends people into the open air. Stevenson, who often wrote in bed in the intervals between extreme pain, was an open-air man who made health contagious. He was a manly man, and his courage under limitations which devastated his working power and the gallantry with which he looked death in the face and went on with his task must be counted for righteousness. It is idle to tell people that they have no concern with the character of the man who makes life beautiful or interesting for them. It is a sound instinct which makes them look for a

[1] The Penny Piper of Saranac: An Episode in Stevenson's Life. By Stephen Chalmers. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 75c.

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man behind a book and rejoice when they find him there.

And that instinct impels them to love the men who pipe to it, aware that men are bigger than all their problems, and that, if all those problems were solved, the greatest of all problems would still remain to be solved—how is a man of infinite capacity to grow, to suffer, to enjoy, to be content and happy in a world of finite toils, pleasures, and rewards? In the terrific struggles in France to-day the British soldier feels a thrill of joy and courage when he hears again the old simple strains of "The British Grenadier." The ring and swing of the familiar strains have the potency of a bugle-call sounded from the invincible heights of duty and patriotism. Even in the brazen clamor of war men do not live by bread alone. Without a note of didacticism Stevenson is always giving men not only rest and refreshment by the way, but courage to bear their burdens, contempt for cowardice, and that love of manliness which makes moral corruption hateful.

"To travel hopefully is better than to arrive, and true success is in labor," wrote the piper, whom pain could not silence nor the presence of death crush down. For all sorts and conditions of men this prescription, made by a physician for a patient smitten by the white plague, holds good: "Fresh air; fresh eggs; read Robert Louis Stevenson."

MEDIATION: A LESSON FROM HISTORY

The daily papers report that a self-constituted committee has called upon the President to summon a conference of neutral nations to offer to the nations at war their services as mediators in bringing about peace. We venture to recommend to this committee to read in Nicolay and Hay's "Life of Abraham Lincoln" the account contained in Volume VI, Chapters III and IV, of a futile attempt which was made by Napoleon III to secure a similar intervention by mediation in the affairs of this country during the Civil War. He first attempted to secure such an offer of mediation by a combination of the three greatest European nations—the French, the English, and the Russian. The reader will recollect that at that time the German Empire did not exist. This attempt failed, England and Russia both declining to offer mediation until it was asked. Napoleon then made alone his offer to America. It was a dark period of the war. The Federal troops had been defeated in both battles of Bull Run, McClellan had been defeated in his attempt against Richmond by the way of the James River, and the campaign in the West, brilliantly opened by the battles of Fort Henry and Fort Donelson, had been halted at Shiloh and Vicksburg. But Mr. Lincoln and his Cabinet rejected the proffered mediation, and were supported in that rejection by Congress and by the unanimous sentiment of the loyal people of the North. We venture to transcribe here a part of Mr. Seward's reply to the proposals of the French Emperor:

> This Government has not the least thought of relinquishing the trust which has been confided to it by the Nation under the most solemn of all political sanctions, and if it had any such thought it would still have abundant reasons to know that peace proposed at the cost of dissolution would be immediately, unreservedly, and indignantly rejected by the American people. It is a great mistake that European statesmen make, if they suppose this people are demoralized. Whatever, in the case of an insurrection, the people of France or of Great Britain or of Switzerland or of the Netherlands would do to save their national existence, no matter how the strife might be regarded by or might affect foreign nations, just so much, and certainly no less, the people of the United States will do, if necessary, to save for the common benefit the region which is bounded by the Pacific and the Atlantic coasts, and by the shores of the Gulfs of St. Lawrence and Mexico, together with the free and common navigation of the natural highways by which this land, which to them is at once a land of inheritance and a land of promise, is opened and watered. Even if the agents of the American people now exercising their power should, through fear or faction, fall below this height of the National virtue, they would be speedily, yet constitutionally, replaced by others of sterner character and patriotism.

We cannot doubt that any proposal of mediation coming at this time to the European Powers, whether from America alone or in co-operation with other Powers, would receive a reply similar to that which Mr. Seward gave to Napoleon III in 1863. The Allies are steadily, though slowly, pressing back the Germans in the west; they are repeating the former defeats of the Austrian forces in the east; they are making slow but sure progress on the Italian border in the south, reinforced by Rumania; and they are beginning a campaign with initial successes in the Balkans.

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They are therefore not in any mood to yield to German militarism, and to any proposal from the United States might well reply, in almost the words of Mr. Seward, that they have not the least thought of relinquishing the trust which has been confided to them as defenders of democratic freedom against the assault of military autocracy. Nor is there any reason to think that the German Government is in any mood to surrender its policy of terrorism and abandon its attempt to rule the world by the sword at the request of any intermediator. The spirit of the voluntary committee of pacifists is better than its judgment.

PRESIDENT ELIOT'S SUPPORT OF PRESIDENT WILSON

THE first article in the "Atlantic Monthly" for October is a remarkable paper by Dr. Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University. We say remarkable because it is indicative of a striking change of mind on the part of Mr. Eliot, who, when he has carefully and deliberately adopted a stand on any great and fundamental question of social philosophy, is not given to changing his mind.

For more than a year, in written papers and public addresses, Mr. Eliot has been one of the foremost champions in this country of the cause of the Allies. Many people have even received the impression—we certainly have—that he believed that the United States should throw all the influence of its moral and material power in support of the Allies. They are fighting, Mr. Eliot has more than once said, to preserve for Europe, and perhaps the world, the political philosophy and social institutions which form the very foundations of the United States. But his attitude in the present "Atlantic" article is quite changed. He has either been misinterpreted and has never regarded the European contest as one of the most profoundly critical in the history of civilization, or he now takes a very different point of view from that which he took two years ago in an eloquent address before the New England Society of New York, or that which he has set forth in more than one notable contribution to the New York "Times."

The "Atlantic" article is an admirable piece of English writing. Mr. Eliot begins by giving the following vivid picture of the two Presidential candidates:

> The present Presidential campaign is remarkable in several respects. It is conducted with great reasonableness and propriety and without any of the too common vituperation and bluster. The candidates are both men of but little political experience, who came into statesmanship out of other highly intellectual callings. Neither of them possesses that ready sympathy and cordial expressiveness sometimes supposed to be indispensable to a successful political career. Both are reserved men who do their own thinking and select their own counselors. The fate of idolized men, like Frémont, Blaine, Bryan, and Roosevelt, suggests, however, that with American voters this "personal magnetism" quality is not so engaging as has been supposed. President Wilson is capable of rhetorical warmth and high color in written compositions, and in unprepared speech before an exciting audience his emotions sometimes seem to get—for the moment—the better of his judgment. Mr. Hughes has not exhibited thus far so much warmth in his writings as President Wilson is capable of; but in the first Taft campaign he proved himself a vigorous stump speaker, though without charm.

After a review of the Republican platform and of Mr. Hughes's campaign speeches Mr. Eliot advises the re-election of President Wilson for nine reasons which he finds "in a comparison of the acts or deeds of the Democratic Congress and the Democratic President with the Republican acts or deeds in the four preceding Administrations." These nine reasons we summarize as follows:

1. The Democratic party has given us a revision of the tariff downward, and a reduction of protectionist activities tends to promote lasting international peace.

2. President Wilson persuaded Congress to repeal the Panama Canal Tolls Act, thus promoting a better understanding with foreign nations.

3. The Democratic Administration passed the Federal Reserve Law, one of the greatest contributions in our history to the stability and efficiency of American business credit and financial enterprise.

4. The Democratic party enacted a National income tax, "the justest and most expedient of all taxes in a democracy." Mr.

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Eliot admits "that a much-needed improvement is a reduction in the limit of exemption so that a much larger part of the population may pay the tax." But "the Democratic party is quite as likely to make this reduction as the Republican party."

5. President Wilson has refused to make war on Mexico and to intervene "by force of arms to protect on foreign soil American commercial and manufacturing adventurers who of their own free will have invested their money or risked their lives in foreign parts under alien jurisdictions."

6. In what is known as the "A B C" Conference with Brazil, Argentina, and Chile a year ago President Wilson took a step which "gives much promise of valuable Pan-American action in future."

7. As to the European war, President Wilson has forced Germany to a recognition of neutral rights without fighting, and has, on the whole, taken adequate steps for military preparedness.

8. In the field of economics President Wilson has put himself on the side of aiding agriculture, good roads, banking facilities for farmers, and especially the development of practical agricultural and vocational colleges. As to the latter, "no nation, not even the German, ever enacted a more directly productive educational measure."

9. The Wilson Administration's humanitarian quality is indicated by its Conservation activities, its Child Labor Act, and its establishment of National parks and National monuments.

These, in Mr. Eliot's opinion, represent the credit side of the Nation's account with President Wilson. The debit side he dismisses as follows:

> President Wilson in these terrible times has had ample opportunity to make mistakes and to hurt the country and its cause. He has made mistakes; but has usually changed his mind and his course of conduct in season to prevent much mischief from those mistakes. He has not been uniformly true to his own convictions with regard to the merit system in the civil service, for he has allowed Senators and Representatives and some members of his Cabinet to apply the spoils system in the public service—probably under some invisible compulsion or supposed necessity. He disappointed most Americans when he did not protest against the invasion of Belgium; and some Americans now wish that the President would publicly abandon the neutral state of mind which he recommended to the American people at the outset of the war. But these are errors resulting from too great reticence and caution; and they have been far less injurious than those which would have resulted from impetuosity and impatience.

No one has a higher regard for the clarity of Mr. Eliot's mind, for the superiority of his intelligence, and for the genuineness of his courageous patriotism than the editors of The Outlook; but, even taking at its face value his presentation of the debit and credit account of President Wilson, we cannot follow in his conclusions. No number of specific and detached economic laws can make up for the fundamental corruption of an administrative system by the reintroduction of the spoils system "under some invisible compulsion or supposed necessity," nor can the passage of the Federal Reserve Law and the Rural Credits Act cover up the fact that the Wilson Administration in Washington has been one of the most expensive and extravagant in the history of the country. We are of those Americans to whom Mr. Eliot refers who wish "that the President would publicly abandon the neutral state of mind which he recommended to the American people at the outset of the war." But we cannot agree with Mr. Eliot that this is an error "resulting from too great reticence and caution." It is an error which President Wilson repeated deliberately in his address before the League to Enforce Peace, when he said of the European war:

> With its causes and its object we are not concerned. The obscure fountains from which its stupendous flood has burst forth we are not interested to search for or explore.

This is not an error of reticence and caution. It is the error of a man who does not see straight or think straight, and we cannot support such a man. No matter how good his specific and detached acts may be, no matter how fine his aspirations or how upright his personal character, the administrative leader of a great nation like the American Republic must be a man who sees clearly and thinks consistently. If Mr. Wilson had made as many mistakes, had changed his mind as often, and had been as "untrue to his own convictions" in the administration of Harvard University as he has in the administration of the United States Government, we respectfully ask Mr. Eliot if he would advocate Mr. Wilson's retention as President of Harvard.

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STRIKES AND THE CANADIAN LAW

THE threatened railway strike and the transportation strike in New York City bring the public attention again to the Canadian system. In 1907 Canada passed a law enacted largely through the efforts of William Lyon Mackenzie King, Minister of Labor at the time.

The aim of the law was to prevent any strike or lockout before an investigation should be made by an official board. Under the terms of the law the intending parties to a strike or lockout, on exhausting all possible means of settlement, may make application to the Minister of Labor for the appointment of a Board of Conciliation and Investigation, to which Board the dispute may be referred.

Then the Minister of Labor acts. He calls upon each of the conflicting parties to name a member of the Board, which is to consist of three members appointed by the Minister. The two members appointed by the representatives of the employer and the employees may recommend the third member, but if they fail to agree or if they prefer it the Minister himself may choose him. The third member is the chairman of the Board.

This Board expeditiously and carefully inquires into the dispute. For this purpose it has the powers to summon and enforce the attendance of witnesses, to administer oaths, to require witnesses to give evidence on oath and to produce such books, papers, or other documents as the Board deems requisite to a full investigation. Any member of the Board may administer an oath,, and the Board may accept and call for such evidence as it thinks fit, whether strictly legal evidence or not. All books, papers, and other documents brought before the Board, whether voluntarily or by summons, may be inspected by the Board and also by such parties as the Board allows, but any information so derived shall not be made public, save in so far as the Board deems it expedient. Such parts of books, papers, or other documents as in the Board's opinion do not relate to the matter at issue may be sealed up. Thus, while the Board is expected to try conciliation, failing a settlement, it proceeds *formally*, and even though its final findings fail to settle the dispute, they do become the official utterance on which public opinion is shaped and brought to bear.

No member of the Board may accept any perquisite of any kind from any corporation, partnership, or individual in any way interested in any matter before or about to be brought before the Board. The acceptance of such a perquisite renders a member liable to a fine not exceeding a thousand dollars.

Until the investigation is completed conditions must be kept *in statu quo* as to all matters in dispute. This Act makes it unlawful for any employer to declare or cause a lockout, or for any employee to go on a strike on account of any dispute prior to or during the reference of the dispute to the Board of Conciliation and Investigation.

What is more, employers and employees must give at least thirty days' notice of an intended hange affecting conditions of employment with regard to wages or hours. In the event that such intended change results in a dispute, until the dispute has been finally dealt with by the Board of Conciliation and Investigation neither of the parties affected may alter the conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours.

Awards are made according to what is determined to be the merits of the case, but there is nothing compulsory about their acceptance. But the experience of nine years has shown that there has been a wonderful gain in ascertaining the facts with completeness as to any proposed lockout or strike before action is taken. The first thing is to get the complete facts before the public, and the second to appeal to the sense of justice of the parties concerned.

Some time ago, in speaking before the Railway Business Association in this country at its annual dinner, held at the Waldorf Astoria in New York City, Mr. King referred to one objection to the law, namely, that it does not provide for a permanent board. He said:

> From time to time in Canada it has been proposed that instead of a special board for each dispute, there should be a permanent board, but having for every case a representative of each party.
>
> No one board could handle all the cases which would arise—an objection much greater in a country as large as the United States. . . . Formalities and rigid precedents, so fatal to conciliation in industrial disputes, are more difficult to avoid with permanent than with temporary boards.

At that time there had been one hundred and thirty-two applications in Canada for the good offices of boards of conciliation and investigation, and out of the one hundred and

(*Continued on page following illustrations*)

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Current Events Pictorially Treated

PHOTOGRAPH BY LALLIE CHARLES, BANFF, ALBERTA, FROM CENTRAL NEWS PHOTO SERVICE

PRINCESS PATRICIA OF CONNAUGHT

"Princess Pat," as she is affectionately called, is one of the most popular members of the British royal family. With her father and mother, the Duke and Duchess of Connaught, she has resided in Canada for several years, her father being Governor-General of the Dominion. He is now retiring from that office, and, with his family, will soon return to England. A regiment of Canadians, known familiarly as the "Princess Pats," has done valiant service in France during the present war

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM PAUL THOMPSON

ENGLAND'S MAGNANIMOUS TREATMENT OF AN UNCHIVALROUS FOE

The picture shows the funeral accorded by the British to the commander of the Zeppelin which, during a recent raid, was destroyed by English gun-fire. Notwithstanding the fact that the Zeppelin warfare has resulted mainly in the death of non-combatants, respect is paid by England to the bravery, if not the chivalry, of Zeppelin crews who have met disaster

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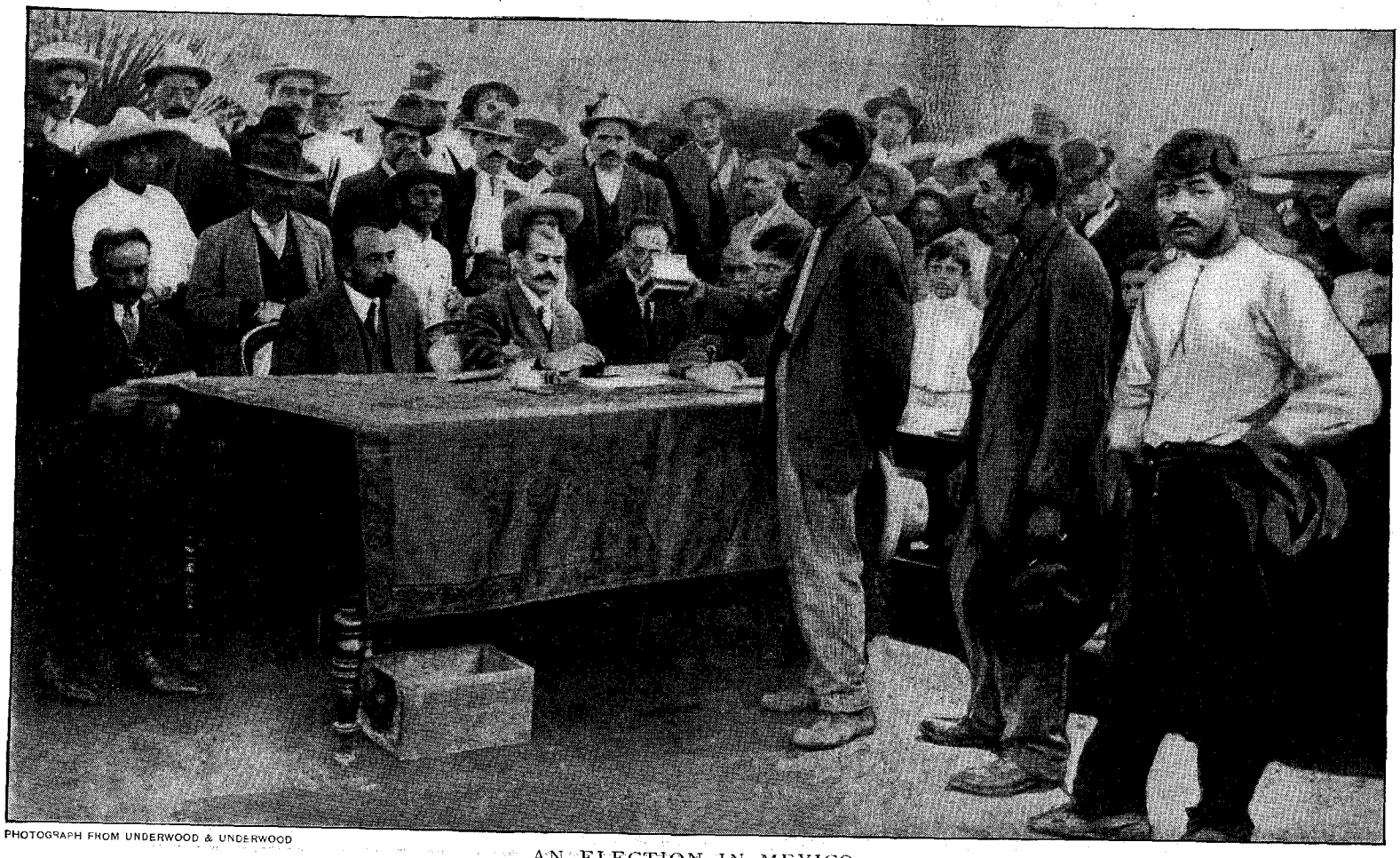

PHOTOGRAPH FROM UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

AN ELECTION IN MEXICO

The above scene shows a favorable aspect of the election which took place in Mexico on September 3. In times past such elections have often been the occasion of violence and rioting

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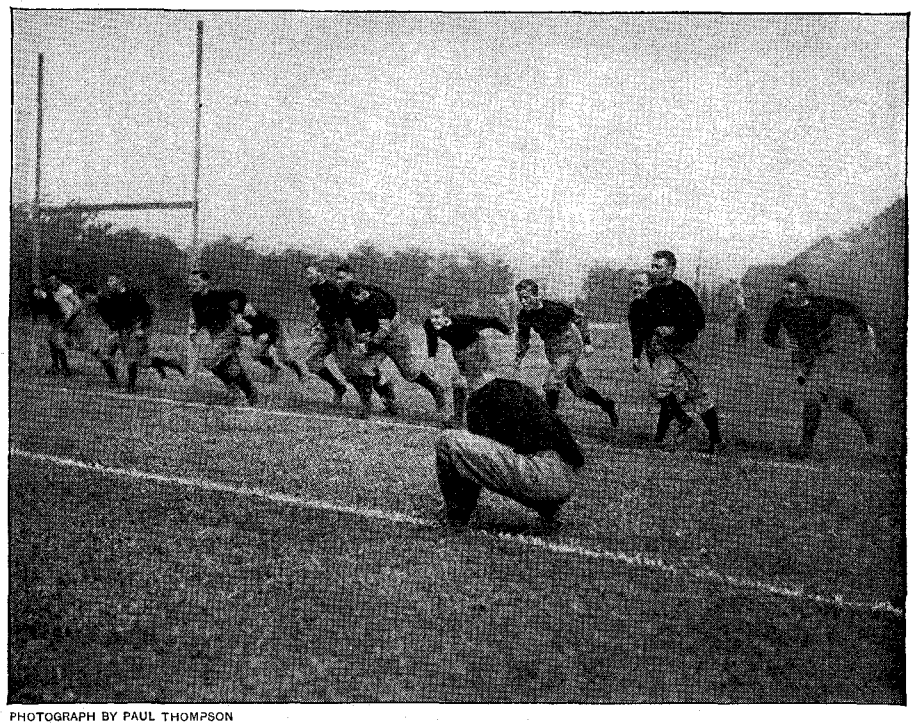

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

HARVARD PRACTICING A START WITH THE SNAP OF THE BALL

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"TAD" JONES COACHING YALE

THE FOOTBALL SEASON BEGINS

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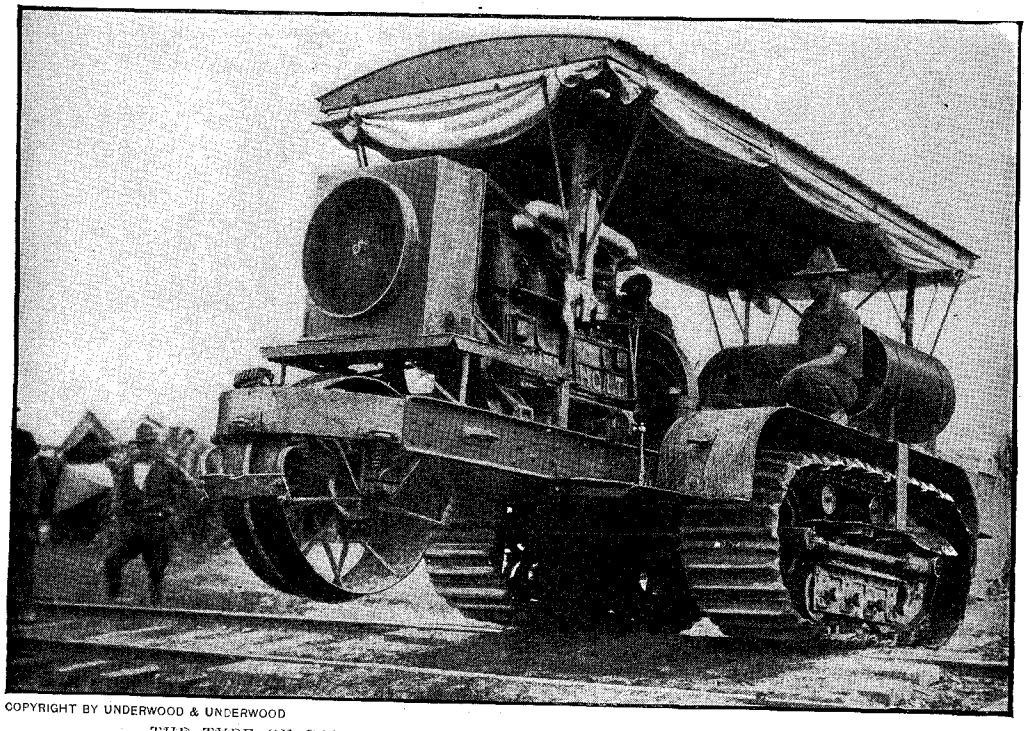
PHOTOGRAPH FROM UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

A GERMAN TRANSPORT VEHICLE



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THE TYPE OF CATERPILLAR TRACTOR USED IN THE BRITISH ARMY

The tractor shown in the lower picture is of American manufacture, and is of the type used by the British in France. It weighs nine tons, and can, it is said, "straddle trenches, traverse swamps, and climb through shell craters like a Car of Juggernaut"

HEAVY TRACTORS USED IN THE GREAT WAR

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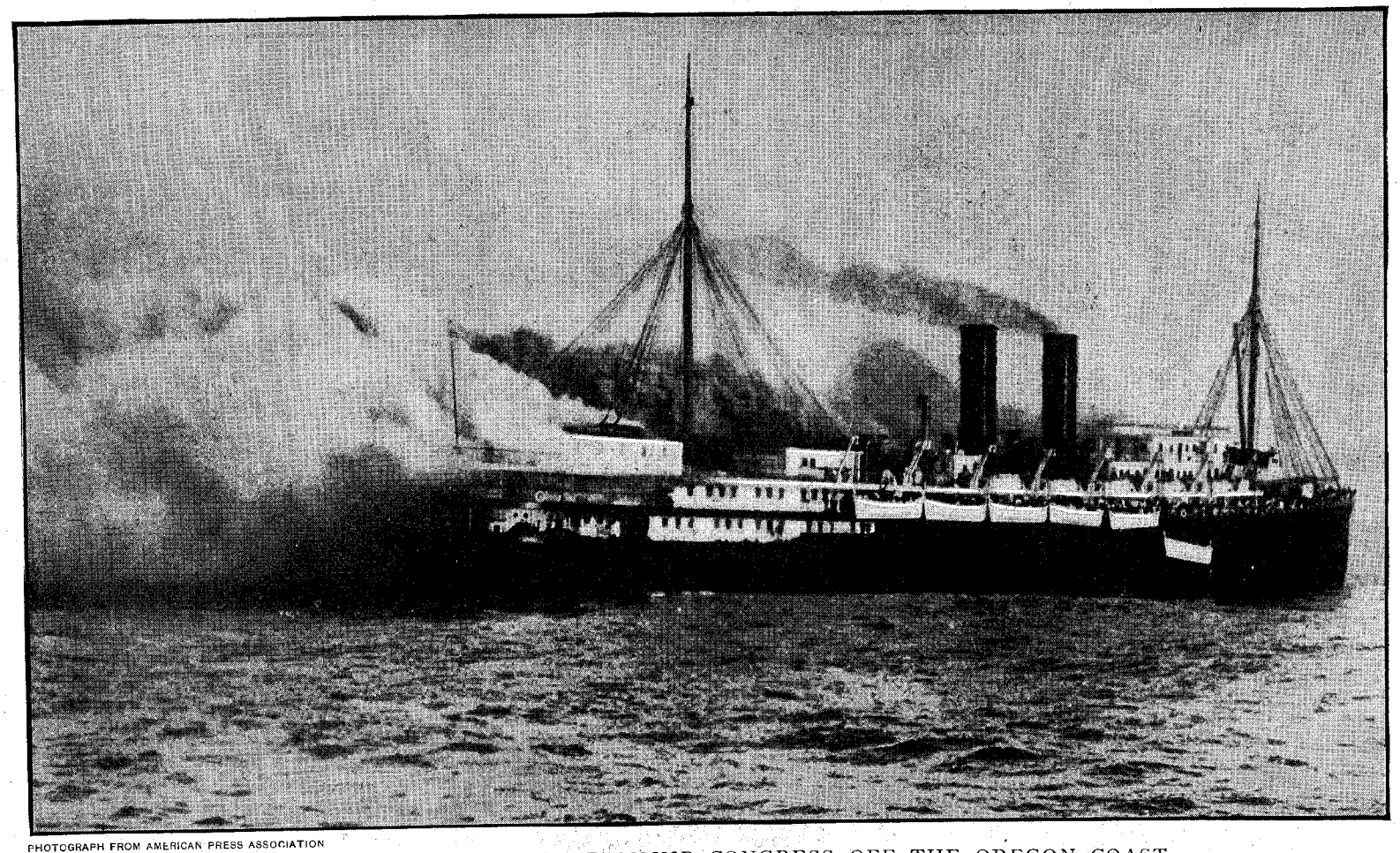

PHOTOGRAPH FROM AMERICAN PRESS ASSOCIATION

THE BURNING OF THE STEAMSHIP CONGRESS OFF THE OREGON COAST

The fire resulted in the destruction of this fine vessel on September 14, but fortunately no lives were lost. The Congress belonged to the Pacific Coast Steamship Company, plied between San Francisco and Seattle, and had nearly 400 persons on board when the fire broke out. She was built in Camden, New Jersey, three years ago

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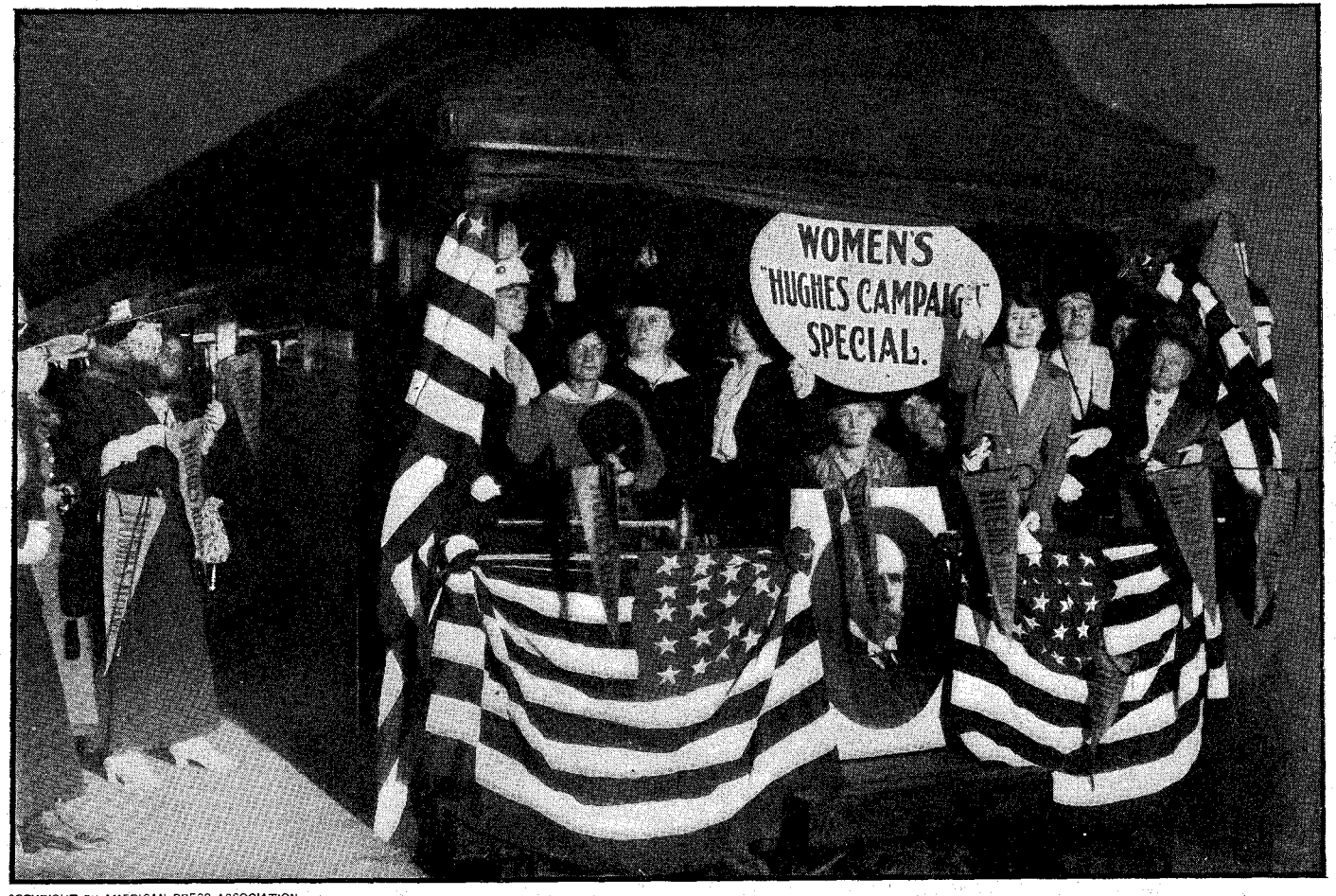

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WOMEN CAMPAIGNING FOR MR. HUGHES

Women are taking an active part in the political campaign this year on behalf of both Republican and Democratic candidates; perhaps the advocates of Mr. Hughes's election feel that they have a certain advantage over their sisters on the other side because of the long-continued unwillingness of the Democrats to make woman suffrage a National issue

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM FELICI, FROM UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

POPE BENEDICT XV IN HIS APARTMENT IN THE VATICAN

This photograph of the Pontiff was made on September 3, the second anniversary of his elevation to the Papal throne

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thirty-two, strikes were averted in all save fifteen cases.

In this country the only National legislation with which the Canadian Act may be compared is the Erdman Act. The difference between the two are: first, that the Canadian Act provides for compulsory investigation; and, second, that, while the Erdman Act cannot be invoked unless both parties join in the application, in Canada an investigation may be held if either party applies.

As a result, under the Erdman Act publicity generally takes place after the strike has begun; in Canada it takes place before the strike can begin.

In the address above mentioned, Mr. Mackenzie King thus described the ideal which had animated him:

> If you can fashion some measure which will enable you to place before mankind at large a situation in its true and in its proper light, and bring all its bearings upon the community, whether it be small or large, and place your trouble or your wrong, whatever it may be, before the great body of organized public opinion, if you can fashion a measure toward that end which will enable you to do that thing, then it seems to me that you can leave, with confidence, the result to the working out of the eternal maxim that "justice is the common concern of mankind."

It is reported in the press that the leaders of the railway brotherhoods in Washington denounced the Canadian law as having resulted unfairly to labor. A Canadian authority to whom we referred these complaints says:

> I do not hesitate to say that the Act has worked well in Canada. I have been amazed at some of the statements which I have seen made by some of those who are opposing the measure in this country as to its failure to meet the purposes it was intended to serve. As a matter of fact, the Act has been administered by the present Conservative Government for a period of five years, a time almost as long as it was administered by the Liberal Government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. No administration in Canada would think of changing it. Its service to the country has been as great under one administration as under the other. Each year has helped to make labor, capital, and the public more convinced of the worth and wisdom of the measure. No Member of Parliament in Canada would think of suggesting its repeal, and observations of happenings in other countries where there are no similar measures have only served to convince the Canadian people of the timeliness of the legislation.

One of the members of the Industrial Commission of Colorado writes to The Outlook, saying that the State of Colorado now has a law which is identical with the Canadian law. "It has done more," he says, "to promote industrial peace than anything ever tried in this State. . . . Had this law been in operation in the Nation last month, I believe there would have been no such crisis as confronted us at that time." There is, in our judgment, good ground for this opinion. If the Canadian law were adopted in ordinary industry and a compulsory arbitration law (which should go further than the above-described Canadian law by enforcing the findings of the Arbitration Court on the disputing parties) were employed in public utilities, much of the present strike disturbance would be avoided.

GERMAN FOOD PROBLEMS

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

IN Germany commonplace remarks about the weather are generally supplanted by: "I hear that the price of butter has mounted again," or, "Is it true that there is soon to be another non-meat day?" Your hostess may turn to you at dinner and apologize for a shortage of cream you had not noticed. The press is redundant with figures showing, for example, how the scraps from one hundred plates will supply one cow with sufficient nourishment daily for eight quarts of milk. The old saw of "Mamma, put the butter card on my bread and let me smell it," has been the rounds of the comic papers.

Substitution has been successful in many lines, but synthetic food will have a doubtful appeal. I saw advertised, however, in one Berlin paper a beautiful artificial sausage of crumbs and flavoring. But the only real substitute for meat is less meat. For this reason the food problem has been that of the administrator rather than of the chemist. The ablest minds of Germany have conjured with it. Helfferich, the master financier of

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the Deutsche Bank, now in another service, and Batocki, ex-President of East Prussia, now the respected "Potato Napoleon," are among the best known. In addition to the Central Bureau of the Empire are numerous state and municipal organizations which cope with the local situation. Equal distribution is complicated by difficulty of control in outlying districts. The country people are likely to get too much; the city proletariat, over-regulated, too little.

The card system has not been found a sufficient guarantee against waste, and in some cases has even increased consumption. Prices, especially for dairy produce, soar. The purses of the millions receiving pensions from the state have not swelled correspondingly. Free milk stations and lunch-rooms for children and factory workers were found totally inadequate to meet the demand for cheap, wholesome food. Something had to be done to reduce the long lines waiting for food at the meat and grocery stores. A type of rolling army kitchen, called "Gulasch-Kanonen," in many of the larger cities supplies a large portion of stew for 35 pfennigs. This makes possible in the home a family meal for a trifle. But this, too, proved inadequate.

Many cities, Hamburg and Frankfort among the first, have organized community kitchens, *Massenküchen*. Scattered independent kitchens proved but small economy. This led to the idea of a central kitchen—a *Mutterküche* it is called—with a capacity of from twenty thousand to thirty thousand quarts, and feeding from ten to twelve filial branches scattered over the city. In Berlin there are several of the *Mutterküchen*. One of the largest, just completed, is at Alexanderplatz and supplies daily over forty thousand portions. Heavy auto-trucks, carrying fifty-quart asbestos-covered heat containers, connect the central kitchen with the branches. Though organized within the last four months, over two hundred and fifty thousand Berliners are being fed in this way. There is far greater variety in menu than the housewife could offer at home. For example: Sunday, gulasch and potato; Monday, peas with bacon; if Tuesday is a no-meat day, green and white beans and potato. A full portion costs ten cents, but a half-portion will give sufficient nourishment. They use their bread cards here as elsewhere.

The anxiety of one cautious commissioner, that if the soup burns five hundred people growling at you are less to be feared than five thousand, does not seem to outweigh the general economy realized. A more serious criticism of this mass feeding is its tendency to disintegrate the home. With prices for many commodities out of reach, not only the proletariat but the middle classes flock to the public kitchens in increasing numbers. The people themselves show surprisingly little opposition to this community idea.

Dairy produce is controlled to a superlative degree. Cream is obtainable only for certain enumerated maladies, on a doctor's prescription. He gives the patient a card, which must then be presented to municipal authorities for another card. The amount of milk obtainable for children is measured by their ages. For example, Hans is entitled to one liter until two years old, but not more than three-fourths of a liter thereafter. Children whose mothers are at work all day are cared for and fed in municipal kindergartens and are taken from and to their homes by Girl and Boy Scouts who call daily.

A radical step toward communism has recently been made at Strassburg. Here the Military Governor has declared a potato monopoly. This vegetable is now sold at prices graded to a division of the population into three classes. Those in the poorest class pay only six marks a cwt., those in the middle class eight, and the well-to-do are obliged to pay twelve marks for their potatoes. "So you know from the color of the card presented," continues the article describing this measure. "just what your neighbor's income may be—whether he belongs to the plutocratic twelve-mark class or is one of the unfortunate six-mark poor."

These measures, some of them arbitrary to a degree a mediæval autocrat could scarcely have secured, are essentially benevolent. The Government subordinates every consideration of legality or of ultimate readjustment to the immediate problem of feeding seventy million people. These rapid strides toward a peculiar empirical communism give food for endless speculation. SANFORD GRIFFITH.

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PEACE AND THE WISE MEN

BY ELIZA MORGAN SWIFT

Peace! Will there be peace,
Or only the cease
Of the cannon's roar?
Will this sinister war
Turn from a battle of guns and of swords
To a battle of words?
Is hate buried deep down
With the bones of the dead?
Have they fought so, and bled,
To leave behind them a curse, or a crown?
Will Love be reborn in the dawn of the day?
And who will come to show us the way?
The Wise Men! Where are they?
Will they come—will they come?
From the East and the West,
From the North and the South,
From the eagle's nest
And the river's mouth,
Will they follow the Star?
Will they hear from afar
The voice that bids them arise and bring
Their priceless gift, their offering?
Oh, pray! Let us pray
They will show us the way
Through the darkness of night to a nobler day,
To a Christ reborn in the hearts of men,
To peace on earth, good will again.

AMERICAN AND BRITISH RECONSTRUCTION AFTER THE WAR

BY J. C. LONG

AN INTERVIEW WITH MISS ISABEL SLOAN, DISTRICT SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN WORKERS OF ENGLAND

AMERICAN methods are to play a large part in the social reconstruction of Great Britain after the war, whether or not our diplomats are consulted in writing the terms of peace. British labor is alive to-day to the possibilities of the future. Miss Isabel Sloan, District Secretary of the Federation of Women Workers of England, was in this country last winter studying the effect of scientific management on the living conditions of women. She visited the larger industrial cities of the Eastern States. She consulted with experts in these affairs. She reached the conclusion that British labor will favor the American system, with certain limitations.

Miss Sloan avoided publicity while she was making her tour, but shortly before recrossing the Atlantic she gave this statement to the writer:

"What I have learned in Boston and in other cities in America which have adopted scientific management in the factories where women workers are employed is that the system means a great elimination of waste. I have talked with Mr. Brandeis and others of

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your industrial experts, and I believe that after the war England will have to adopt some of your methods.

"In America I have not been able to see that scientific management has ever contributed directly to the well-being of the employees. New methods have been introduced, costs have been lowered, but labor has not received any but an indirect reward.

"Wages have risen, it is true, but because in each case labor fought for the increase.

"I believe heartily in many forms of scientific management as it is practiced in the United States—in the elimination of wasteful competition, in large-scale buying and selling, in the utilization of by-products.

"I believe England will adopt more efficient methods such as these after the war; but before she will be allowed to do this labor will demand its share in the saving."

The authoritative manner in which Miss Sloan states what will be done is not bluster. British labor has the advantages of organization and of leaders who possess knowledge of the facts. Miss Sloan was on the committee which organized the women of England to fill the places of men who had left for the war. She has co-operated with the Government and other large-scale manufacturers in making terms of employment and in getting workers. The Federation of Women Workers has grown from sixteen thousand to fifty thousand since the beginning of the war.

Miss Sloan saw the value of her knowledge when the war came. She determined to be prepared for the next crisis. Although she came to America as a free lance, her decisions on industrial conditions here will have a strong influence on British labor opinion.

She limited her approval of scientific management. In matters of machinery she believes that it is sound. Wherever it attempts to measure human motions or achievements with the intent to determine their value, she believes it to be either criminal or ridiculous.

"I was speaking with a young factory girl," said Miss Sloan, "who was forced to do her work with the same monotonous motion. 'But,' she said to me, pointing to her heart, 'they can't measure me in here!' And they can't. The women workers of England would not care for that sort of thing.

"And neither will they care for the so-called scientific manner of measuring the worker's earning capacity. All that is foolishness, not science. For if you tell me that one worker produces more than another, that there can therefore be a comparative scale, then I ask you, 'And, granted that you have this scale, what proportion of the total returns belongs to the worker?' That is the fundamental question.

"The whole idea of worth is so confused, so uncertain, embracing so many conditions, that any 'scientific' attempt to determine the value of the worker in relation to what wage should be paid him is ridiculous."

Miss Sloan concluded her interview with a recapitulation of what the women of England have accomplished in industry in the past two years, and a statement of the fundamental demands that they will be able and intend to insist upon during the reconstruction:

"We worked with the manufacturers and the Government in the distribution of labor, in persuading women to enter the factories, in securing women for labor where it was most needed, as in the khaki mills.

"We did our best to get a fair wage scale and an approximately even wage scale for the same industries in the various parts of England. We have been of service to the country, and when the war is ended we are going to see that there will be a different industrial England.

"For instance, the soldiers of the army are going to be dismissed gradually, as soon as they can be refitted into the industrial life; but the women whose places they are taking will also have to be provided for. By degrees most of the women will want to go back to their homes; but they are not going to be driven back.

"Then the women who remain in industry are going to get the same pay as the men for the same work. This is not a dream. Labor knows it, and the Government knows it. It knows that women have come from their homes to do men's work in the time of war. The women are glad to be able to do this; but that doesn't mean that they are going to be shoved out of the way or underpaid when peace comes again."

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A WORD ABOUT CRIMINALS

BY GEORGE S. DOUGHERTY

FORMER DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF POLICE AND CHIEF OF DETECTIVES OF NEW YORK CITY

THE general idea of the criminal is that he is some kind of a creature apart, that he has lost all economic value once he gets inside the bars. It is persistence in this unenlightened attitude toward him that keeps him from having an economic value. Nobody is going to buy a horse that everybody damns, no matter how good he is. No one will employ a man upon whom society has put the brand of dishonesty. And the thinking people in the world know how quick society is to put its brand on a man and how slow it is to take it off.

Apart from the immorality of it, we are cutting off our own noses. We are supporting the ex-convict instead of giving him a chance to support himself. Still more, instead of making him an agent of construction, we are continuing him as an agent of destruction. Economically speaking, it would be cheaper for us to keep him in jail than to let him out, unless we are going to do something practical for him once he gets out. Bear in mind, there is no creature among the maimed, the halt, and the blind so helpless as the ex-convict. For to them every man's hand is stretched out in sympathy, while every man's face is turned against him.

Members of the criminal profession are classified just as persons in other walks of life are classified. Take, for instance, the most common criminals with whom the police have to deal. The highwayman is of a class, just as the pickpocket is of a class. The former is as different from the latter as day from night.

The highwayman acts frequently without premeditation. In fact, most hold-ups are done by men in desperate circumstances, partly crazed from the lack of food and sleep. This game is the crudest form of crime known to the police. It shows no preparation, no thought, no schooling. The man who plays it does not realize the chances he takes, or, if he does, his condition is such that he does not care. Of all criminals, this man is the most easily redeemed, because he is a criminal by necessity and not by choice.

The pickpocket is fully responsible for all his acts, because pocket-picking is his regular business—something he has graduated into, perhaps, from a lower form of crime, such as handkerchief-snatching or stealing from push-carts, if indeed he has not been regularly trained in the craft by a Fagin.

Most of the hold-ups are committed by the first generation of foreign descent—German, Irish, Italian, and Polish. Quite infrequently, and only as a last resort, Negroes engage in them. On the other hand, seventy-five per cent of the pickpockets in America are either Jews or of Jewish descent. The Jew takes good care not to let himself get into such straits as to make the hold-up game a necessity.

The safe-burglar is also different from the highwayman, although of the same degree of courage. Like the pickpocket's, his work is not accidental. It is not done on the impulse of the moment. He is a careful student of his work. Also he must possess mechanical skill and great daring. He usually graduates from one of the mechanical trades. He may be an ironworker, machinist, chauffeur, blacksmith's helper, plumber's helper, or the like. The chances are that he gets into crime accidentally—that is, not through his own design, but through the design of some other. Being a mechanic, it is clear that he was not born with criminal instincts, for if he had been why should he take to hard work? He may be out of a job or a drinker. His adversity is the other fellow's opportunity. At just the psychological moment Satan, in the guise of an old and adroit crook, appears. The crook is aware of this man's mechanical skill and also of his adversity. He suggests a job where there will be plenty of loot and small risk, and our would-be honest but not particularly strong friend falls for the play. That's the beginning.

Of course, the locaters and planners of these crimes—whom we have designated "Satan"—are above the ordinary run of intelligence. They frequently come from the clerical class of the business world. Even these men were not all bad at heart, but took their first downward step on the broad and alluring path of the Great White Way.

For years the best safe-blowers in this country were Germans, Irish-Americans, or Americans. But their numbers have been considerably augmented of late years by Jews and Italians. Jew criminals have made very great

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strides in the United States in a new method of safe-burglary commonly known as "can-opening" or "ripping." These crooks operate in small business places—cigar stores, hat stores, shoe stores, and unimportant jewelry stores. In such places the safes are small affairs and can be easily removed to a place in the store where they can be operated on without detection by a massive steel machine that is much like a can-opener. This machine penetrates the safe with a wonderfully hard, strong blade, and rips it open much after the fashion of an ordinary barnyard can-opener. The "can-openers" or "rippers" have made great strides in the last ten years, not only in New York, but in other big cities of the country. It is almost impossible for the police to get at the identity of these crooks unless they catch them in the act, and they are very dangerous, because they generally shoot to kill.

The loft burglar, who operates in the manufacturing district and steals silks and other valuable goods, is of still another class. He takes smaller risk than the safe-blower. He operates on premises that are not occupied at night. He has pals in the building to "take care of" the night-watchman should that gentleman be too officious, and others on the street on the watch for the police. This is a crude form of burglary. The only skill required is in the disposal of the stolen goods, and always the man who commits the theft gets the smallest pay.

From a psychological point of view, the loft burglar is not totally depraved. He is frequently a sweat-shop worker with a big family and poor health, and ground down to the last sou by the boss. He is Socialistic in his views, and he feels that the boss is getting rich at the expense of him and his family. He chafes under the injustice of it, and takes what seems to him apparently the only way to get even.

The forger is of another type. He usually works in co-operation with another man, who later presents the forged paper. Between them they must acquire familiarity with the circumstances of each particular job. They must have knowledge of the man whose name they propose to counterfeit, so as not to make the amount of the check too large, or even large enough to excite suspicion; and they must know his business relations, so as to present the forged paper where it would be most available.

The forger's work is the safest of all crimes in one respect at least—he usually does his fine pen work when there is not anybody else present. The presenter of the forged paper takes all the chances, and unless he "squeals" it is difficult to connect the actual forger with the job.

The confidence man has the easiest time of all as a criminal. He is the meanest of the lot. He is meaner even than the pickpocket, because he is a "within the law" pickpocket. You can't nab him as you would the ordinary cheap cutpurse and hale him before a magistrate. He is the weasel, the hyena, of criminals. He makes his victim his protector.

The confidence man is the "never-worked" and "never-will-work" fellow. His long suit is to try to get a "queen" who has money to like him for his looks.

This fellow graduates from the gamblers' class. He begins, in most cases, as a race-track "tout." He is a great student of human nature. In the gambling saloon or at the track he has ample opportunity to observe and size up all kinds of men. He can pick out a "sucker" at a distance—his judgment is almost unerring. He always steals from gullible people, and in such a way that the victim does not discover that he has been victimized by a criminal until the swindler has made good his escape.

The confidence man always plays the safe bet where there is no "come-back." That is, he gets the victim—or, to use his own words, "the squealer"—in a position so that he can't squeal. He can't stand the exposure. The "con" man knows that the dupe or "come-on" in the green-goods game who is swindled will not "squeal," because it was his own purpose to swindle other persons. No man would buy counterfeit money except for an obviously criminal purpose. The same is true of a victim of a wire-tapper. That victim was bent on victimizing the pool-room men when he himself was swindled.

The confidence man, in the guise of a friend, usually commits his crime on the avaricious and gullible. In brief, he is deemed by all crooks the "skunk" of the criminal profession.

I have come in contact with so many so-called professional criminals and have studied their outward characteristics so carefully that I can usually tell at a glance the kind of crime they would commit. Highwaymen are usually men of more than ordinary physique, with long faces, large ears close to the head, fair complexions, gray eyes, and big hands and

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feet. Pickpockets, on the contrary, are mostly of small stature, with good-looking, innocent faces, dark complexions, and small hands and feet. They are adroit, shifty, generals in a pinch, quick to "make the get-away," ready with an alibi and to talk themselves away from the complainer or kicker. The safe-burglar is, as a rule, dark, thick-set, silent, and dreamy—a thinker.

The forger, however, may be some slouching, bespectacled, tousle-headed person with delicate hands. That's the way the romancer would picture him, probably. And it may be a true description. Appearance does not concern him. But the presenter of the forged paper must, above all, be a businesslike-looking person. He must be careful neither to underdress nor overdress. He must talk neither too much nor too little, and a *sine qua non* with him is a certain matter-of-fact nonchalance. He must assume all these virtues if he have them not. That's where his professional acumen comes in.

The fundamental mistake the criminal makes is in thinking he can get something for nothing. His next mistake is in taking frightful chances, always playing a long shot—staking his liberty, or possibly his life, against a mere matter of dollars and cents.

Only the wise know that nobody can get anything for nothing, that sooner or later one will have to pay. And so "fools rush in where angels fear to tread." It is curious that a man never realizes the risk he is running until he has committed a crime. Then the sense of it overwhelms him—if he's a novice—and he frequently gives himself up. But the older criminal, whether his crime is successful from his point of view or not, immediately exercises his wits to avoid paying for it. Then comes his clash with the law. It's a game. He uses every device to avoid being caught, or, if caught, to escape. And the law uses every device to get him and keep him. It is in the treatment of the man after he *is* caught that the law blunders, morally and economically, as I shall show hereafter.

Everybody knows that, in spite of the many precautions taken by officers of the law, there have been many remarkable escapes, not only during the transfer of prisoners from one place to another, but from so-called "escape-proof" penal institutions. The criminal is very ingenious in avoiding capture in the first place, and also in avoiding recapture, once he has escaped from jail. The difficulty of keeping at liberty the second time is much greater than it was at first, because "the law" has so much more on him. In the past he could affect disguises, natural and artificial. He could grow a beard or shave off one, or he could dye his hair. In many instances these means were effective in keeping him out of jail, because the earliest possible method of identification was by a physical description circulated from one police department to another without uniformity. Later a daguerreotype of the crook was taken and circulated. That made things harder for him. The daguerreotype was superseded by the photograph, commonly known as the *carte-de-visite* picture, on the back of which there was a more or less uniform description. In the old days detailed measurements were unknown. There was very little effort made to ascertain the scars, marks, baldness, peculiarities, characteristics, etc. The description of the criminal was guessed at by the police official, who inscribed it on the back of the photograph. The next step was the Bertillon system of measurement, which was looked upon with great favor and adopted throughout the country.

In 1895, while in London, I became immensely interested in the finger-print exhibits I saw in Scotland Yard. This system had just been adopted by Sir Edward Henry, Assistant Commissioner of Police. Sir Edward, while in the British service in India, had learned that finger impressions had been for centuries used there as well as in China as signatures to affidavits. In fact, the finger impression was the seal to a great many legal documents. But there had apparently been no great effort made to classify the impressions. Sir Edward's best work—after having suggested the adoption of the finger impression for the identification of the criminal—was to originate a system of classification. Although I was a student of all the methods practiced in Scotland Yard, the finger-print system impressed me more than anything I had seen there or in any other part of Europe.

When I got back to New York, I discussed the finger-print system with the Commissioners of Police and with a young man who was then the photographer and Bertillon measurer of criminals in Police Headquarters. As a result, the young Bertillon operator was sent to Scotland Yard to study the finger-impression system. This self-same young man was no other than Joseph Faurot, the present Inspector, who, twenty years later, I had the

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pleasure of recommending for appointment as Chief of the Detective Bureau of New York. Faurot amply justified my confidence in him. He is unquestionably the greatest finger-print expert in America, and a mighty clever detective.

After the adoption of the finger-print system in New York, it was adopted by the Department of State Prisons at Albany, and later by the Government. It is in use by practically every penal institution and first-class police department in the United States.

The advent of the finger-print system had effectively checked one of the most singular methods used by criminals in avoiding arrest. Formerly, in many instances where a crook committed a crime of considerable magnitude and had learned through underground means —the warning by a stool-pigeon who would double-cross the police as quickly as he would a pal, or the "leaking" by some official, or the friendly offices of some woman denizen of the underworld—that he was "wanted," he would commit some minor crime, possibly a misdemeanor, get arrested, and be sent to prison in some remote corner of the country, and there lie, submerged and hidden, because his identity could not be discovered. Often, in such cases, the chase was abandoned after two or three years.

But he can't work that kind of a scheme to-day, because if there is any finger-print record of him he is immediately identified in any penal institution in the United States. I have known of instances where prison departments failed to identify the "wanted" criminal from a Bertillon description, but the finger-print method is infallible.

Here's an instance which I recall distinctly: There were two young men, twins, who looked so much alike that they could not be distinguished one from the other except perhaps by their own mother, and whose photographs were identical. But their finger impressions were absolutely different, which made their identification possible to any person.

Few persons have any idea of the broad application of the finger-print system throughout the world. I have given some indication of its ancient and general use in the Orient. Most people associate it with nothing but the identification of criminals. And this, to be sure, is its principal use in this country and Europe. But as new schemes develop to identify the criminal, he must needs use his wits to defeat them. The crook to-day uses a very soft, thin cloth glove, and so leaves no impression. But this is very inconvenient for him. He must needs wear the gloves the whole time, for if he should inadvertently leave one off he might make an unmistakable mark on the woodwork or the knob of the safe or a tool, which would lead to his conviction.

Nor does the finger-print system concern the living only. At my suggestion the bureau for the identification of the unidentified dead was established in New York. A photograph of the features of the dead body was taken and a finger impression. In numerous instances this resulted in identification, because most of the unidentified dead had criminal records. You will wonder why so many of the unidentified dead have criminal records. Remember, the criminal is a derelict, an outcast, he has no regular home. He wanders from city to city. Almost everybody else in the world has family connections to whom he can turn in his last hours. But the criminal is a man of the street. When he drops, there is nobody to claim him. Before this system was put into operation in New York there were between three and four hundred bodies buried in the Potters' Field yearly.

The adoption of the system of taking the finger impressions of the enlisted men in the army and navy has worked wonders for the Government. By it deserters are apprehended. It also defeats efforts of men to enlist in one section of the country when they have been rejected in another. It also makes it possible to determine whether an enlister has a previous criminal record.

My attention was called the other day to an anonymous letter in one of the big dailies complaining that the soldiers and sailors, by being subjected to the finger-print system, were the only ones thus bunched with criminals. The writer simply didn't know what he was talking about. As a matter of fact, the finger-print system is also used now for the identification of hundreds of thousands of foreign bank depositors in the savings institutions throughout the United States.

It has always been a great hobby of mine, which I have strongly urged on our Government, to take the finger impressions of every foreigner who enters America, either by the Pacific or the Atlantic coast. I maintain that this would not only be an invaluable aid to us in identifying foreign criminals—many of whom enter the United States every year under assumed names, etc.—but also in keeping our naturalization records straight, and locating in innumerable instances persons

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from abroad who have been swallowed up in the ocean of our complex population, and who are inquired for by relatives in the old country. The argument against this has been that honest people should not be requested to furnish their finger impressions. But I can't see why honest people should object.

The trouble with our treatment of the criminal to-day is tradition—imitation. For thousands of years the guilty were punished by the most severe methods. We have followed along the same lines with but slight improvement. There has never been a scientific study of the criminal in any Old World country, and we—who pretend to be Christian and progressive—have done practically no more than Europe for our unfortunate fellows. Once a man is convicted of a crime, he is cast aside as a human derelict and considered beyond all redemption. This is not only so in the case of the so-called hardened criminal, but in the case of the youthful or accidental criminal, or the man who, by environment in penal institutions, gradually develops criminal tendencies that he did not originally possess.

Until very recently it was a common practice in this country to hound the criminal after he had served his sentence. While to-day there is a strong inclination to discontinue this practice, it is by no means totally eliminated. The old adage, "Once a criminal, always a criminal," is still applied. In many sections of the United States the ex-convict is given "hours to leave." When he leaves one locality and enters another, he is given "hours to leave" that. He is hunted and pushed from pillar to post more than the leper. There is no safe haven for him.

I wonder if the general public ever thinks of what actually happens to a man who is charged with a crime. From the moment he is suspected ninety per cent of the population begin despising him. When he is arrested, he is treated like an animal. In a good many instances, if he refuses to confess to the crime he is suspected of and may not have committed, physical force is used to extract a confession. I personally know of cases where men have confessed to crimes that they did not commit just because they could not stand the methods of examination and the grilling physical torture that was inflicted.

After the suspect has received all the punishment that can be inflicted by the police he is sent to jail to await trial. And he stays there if he is not fortunate enough to procure bail. Now the "trimming process" begins. A lawyer at the first interview promises to do all sorts of things for him, gladdens his heart, and then urges him to get what money he can with which to conduct his defense. How rosily some of these criminal lawyers talk to the prisoner awaiting trial!

The second interview is a business one, and consists largely of goading the prisoner for more money—fees. This wretched creature unconscionably extracts the last dollar the prisoner has. Then he disappears, and is not seen again until the day of the trial. He has done practically nothing to defend his man, nothing to earn the money that he took from him. Instead of making any pretense at a defense, he persuades the prisoner to plead guilty, urging that he has a personal pull with the Judge and can secure the minimum sentence. In nine cases out of ten these statements have no truth to back them. The chances are that the Judge has a contempt for the shyster, and, if he does modify the sentence, it is because of pity for the prisoner, who, he believes, has been swindled.

In his dull life in the prison previous to the trial not a solitary soul has approached the poor fellow except perhaps a missionary who has tried to help him. Everybody else is after graft, big and little, from shyster to trusty. He has found this out to his sorrow. Can you blame him at this point for losing confidence in his fellow-men?

When he is sentenced, the culprit, if a mere youth, is sent to an institution for juvenile criminals, where he comes in contact with the best and the worst. If he is beyond the juvenile age, he goes to a State reformatory, where the same condition obtains. If he is beyond the reformatory age, he goes to State's prison. From the moment he enters any one of these institutions he is a marked man for the rest of his life—a convict!

When our criminal gets out—he has by this time paid his debt to society—his account should be closed, crossed off the books. But this is what happens: We force him to be a prevaricator. If he tries to get a job, he knows that if he admits that he has "done time" it will queer him. He will be shunned and shunned and shunned—"passed up" by everybody who knows him to be an ex-convict. Even when he does get honest work and is prosperous and happy, some loathsome person—possibly a fellow "ex" or an uncon-

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victed detective or policeman with the soul of a shrimp and a mind as narrow as a string—betrays him, gives him up to his employer. Then he loses his job. Wherever he goes the curse follows him. Is it any wonder that he goes back to crime?

Reformers urge that the ex-convict should start life all over again. But they don't tell him where or how to start. The trouble is we are all so narrow and dishonest that we try to force a helpless man to keep on paying his debt after he's already squared it with the State.

One has no idea how easy it is to convict a man on his record. Where a man should be given the benefit of the doubt a jury of self-righteous "boneheads" will say, "He's an 'ex-con.,' and he probably did it." Here's a case that shows how dangerous it is to judge a man by his past record:

A few years ago, up in Bridgeport, a safe was blown and the night-watchman of the building shot. The local authorities arrested the engineer of the building and held him for the crime. But his employers were so sure that he was not guilty that they put up $30,000 bail for him, and he was released and went back to work. The State's attorney called me in on the case.

I intended to operate independently, but when I reached Bridgeport I was met at the station by one of the local detectives and admitted to him the object of my visit. He informed me that any investigation I might make would be futile, that the man who committed the crime was already under arrest and released on very high bail, and that the night-watchman was on the verge of death in a near-by hospital. Nevertheless I decided to go on with the case. The local detective suggested then that I have a look at the suspect, and together we went to the building where the crime had been committed. As soon as I saw the engineer I recognized him as an ex-convict whom I had known. But I did not give it away to the local detective.

I don't recollect a more dramatic moment in my thirty years' experience as a detective. Not a word was spoken between us. I knew that he knew that I recognized him, and I can't begin to describe what I knew was going on in his mind. He was making a fight for his life, a brave fight. He was succeeding, and here, like a bolt from the blue, as if sent by Satan himself, was a man who knew all about the record which he had so carefully kept hidden. A word from me, and, innocent or guilty, nothing could have saved him. But I did not speak that word. I kept my face straight, and in a moment the tension had passed, because he, too, seemed to realize that I was going to give him a chance. Believe me, although I am no star actor, it took no little acting, no little simulation of mere matter of-fact interest, to keep the local sleuth from intercepting the wireless messages that were being flashed between two men in that engine-room.

I made it my business to visit that man alone at his home that night. He introduced me to his wife and children. He showed me about the pleasant cottage he occupied and told me of the comfortable salary he was getting. "Now, what motive," said he, "would I have for robbing a safe?"

And I admitted that I couldn't see that he had any.

I kept right on the case. The night-watchman began to mend. I interviewed him. I found out that there were five men engaged in the robbery. The work was characteristic of a band of yeggmen I knew to be operating in Connecticut at the time. I ran them down. They all pleaded guilty and received long sentences. If I had gone before a jury and told them what I knew about that engineer, no power on earth could have persuaded them that he was not at least one of the burglars.

The most remarkable cases of reformation of criminals that I have known were where certain courageous, wholesome, decent women married ex-convicts, knowing all about them, and succeeded in working them back to manhood and decency. I don't know of any greater captains of industry than these self-same women, because in these cases they have reclaimed the men not only economically but morally.

I was talking with a former crook the other day regarding the treatment of the convict from an economic standpoint. This man had just got home from Atlanta. He very highly recommended a certain deputy warden of that prison, claiming that in all his career he had never seen his equal. This warden, from money that had previously been expended for unnecessary food for the prisoners, saved enough out to buy two pounds of candy a month for each man. He argued that candy was as necessary for a man as it was for a child, and that it was more necessary for the

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criminal than for any other human being. The success of this warden's various ideas has been so telling that the Atlanta prison is the best regulated and most successful prison in America.

It is just as natural for a convict in prison to want to know the result of the baseball game between the Giants and the Braves as it is for the banker or the merchant. If you deprive the criminal of this character of information, you impress upon him that you think he is unfit to receive news of this character. And there's nothing so demoralizing to a man as to make him feel that he is low in the esteem of other men. What the criminal requires most is fresh air, plenty of exercise, and, beyond all, a knowledge of what is going on in the outside world. It is better to exercise the mind than the body, any day. At least while he is working with his hands let him also be working with his wits. Bear in mind that his wits will keep working, anyway. It rests with us to direct them along lines of contentment rather than along lines of resentment.

Here's an illustration: Some years ago I was studying the conditions in a cigar factory, the workmen in which were half Cuban and half American. There had always been much difficulty in keeping them quiet and attentive to their work until the foreman originated the plan of having an American read a newspaper in English one-half of the day to the American employees, and a Cuban read a newspaper in Spanish the other half of the day to the Cuban employees. The plan worked wonderfully. The work of the men was better and the output much greater.

THE NATIONS AT WAR

BIG BUSINESS IN FOREIGN TRADE

BY JAMES DAVENPORT WHELPLEY

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK IN ENGLAND

THE American people are in error in their belief that trade and industrial combination are undesirable or else the people of the other manufacturing countries in the world are wrong, for the practice of suppression as followed in the United States is directly opposite to the policy of all other countries. There is no moral question involved in the forming of a business combination unless the combination itself raises that question by subsequent acts subversive of public morals or policies. It is purely a question of expediency. That is the situation with which America is now confronted, and never was the matter of more urgent importance.

Before the war the cartel, trust, combination, or price agreement was in force in nearly all the leading industries in Europe. These forms of trade regulation or "restraint" prevailed in free-trade England and low-tariff Holland and Belgium, as well as in protection Germany, Austria, Russia, France, and Italy. So strong were these trade arrangements that American exporters who operated on a large scale were either seriously hampered through this opposition or were compelled to make private trade treaties and work with them. There was no secrecy in regard to these combinations in the countries where they existed, but all evidence of American participation had to be carefully withheld from the American people, for obvious reasons.

If a man bought steel in Russia, he did not even know in advance from which mill his supply was coming. If he wanted to know the price of flour in London, he looked at the figures published weekly in the newspapers by the Millers' Association. One great American industrial company which manufactures in the United States a large percentage of a single product decided several years ago to extend its trade to South America. Inquiries were made, and it was found that there was apparently a good opening for business. The company even went so far as to select agents in the larger South American cities. Suddenly all effort ceased. People who had been communicated with in connection with the contemplated move were notified that the deal was off; that the company had decided not to extend its business. The reason for this change was that the company had received

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an intimation from England that the European trust controlling the foreign output of that particular product regarded South America as its own particular territory, and if any attempt was made by the American concern to capture that market, retaliation would take the form of an invasion of the United States, a territory hitherto left to American industry.

Everywhere in Europe co-operation among industrial plants and co-operated effort to reduce expenses, increase home trade, and compete in foreign markets have been encouraged by the various governments, not only theoretically but through actual government participation, directly or indirectly, in the fortunes of the concerns involved. The larger the combination, the greater respect and consideration in which it was held and the more influence it had in the councils of the government. All this is in interesting contrast to what has taken place in the United States, where combination is largely taboo and the trust has ever been under suspicion. This is not the result entirely of unreasoning popular antagonism in America, as expressed through the Government, or of unjust popular criticism. The greediness and immoral practices of the trusts themselves brought them into disfavor, and the politicians seeking popular support extended and emphasized the impression that the operations of big business were not governed entirely by the Golden Rule.

Many of the American industrial combinations were formed for the purpose of financial exploitation rather than with regard to any economic purpose. In the earlier days these combinations used their power to bully railways into rebating, to debauch legislatures and public officials, and even went so far as to participate largely in local elections in the desire to control legislative, administrative, and judicial functions of government to their own profit. The result of such practices was a foregone conclusion. The public was in time aroused to action, and, as in all such cases, the action became a violent reaction and the good suffered with the evil. In attempting to do away with the questionable features of big business legitimate enterprise has been restricted beyond the needs of the hour, and most certainly the competitive power of America in foreign trade has been handicapped.

The interesting question naturally arises as to why the trusts in Europe have not developed the evil qualities characteristic of some of the American trusts in the earlier days of their operation. Prices to European consumers have not been increased sufficiently to cause any outcry, and there have been few exposures of corruption of government officials, national or local; in fact, so far as ordinary observation may determine, the European trusts appear to come under the classification of what are known in America as "good trusts." It must be admitted that the American form of government lends itself more easily to the exploitation of the ignoble qualities of human nature by those who may profit than does the more autocratic form that prevails in Europe. There is also the formidable check in Europe upon malign activities afforded by unlimited government supervision, especially where the trust exists by reason of government patronage or financial aid extended. While prices are fixed by agreement, these prices vary with the fluctuations in supply and demand, and a direct relation between cost and sale price is generally maintained. There is comparatively little overcapitalization, hence the earnings do not have to be so large to enable dividends to be paid.

There is also a greater respect for public opinion on the part of the European purveyor than is shown by his American prototype, for public opinion in Europe is better organized, and expresses itself more fiercely, directly, and violently, than in the United States. It seems to be able to concentrate itself more effectively upon the object to be attained or upon the people who have the power to bring about changes or reforms. Public opinion is often rendered futile in the United States through lack of organization and concentration, and by the politically partisan character of attacks when made.

Whatever may be the real reason for the high standing of the industrial combination in Europe and its equivocal position in America, the fact remains that this difference has existed. The results of this difference are apparent and most natural. In America there has been bitter antagonism between the Government and big business, almost from the inception of the latter. There has been no co-operation between the two in home industry or in foreign trade. In Europe the government and big business go hand in hand, intent upon but one purpose, and that is to increase the prosperity of the country and to meet successfully all rivalry in foreign

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markets. Diplomacy and trust management are bosom friends. Science constitutes herself the handmaiden of both. Every government function and every activity of the nation is called upon to work in harmony with the purpose of the manufacturer.

Subject to wholesome restraint at home, as much through public opinion as through government supervision, no restraint at all has been put by the European governments or by public opinion upon any effort to increase foreign trade. Every form of trade combination "restraint" or monopoly has been allowed to those employed in the import and export business or who were exploiting foreign lands, colonial possessions, or protectorates. When the methods of European companies have become a scandal, as in Africa, public opinion has intervened and the companies have been called to account, but it may be said that, excepting where questions of humanity were involved, a free hand has been given. This was the situation prior to August, 1914.

After the war is over these combinations and co-operative efforts promise to become even stronger, not only on private initiative, but through an even larger measure of government encouragement and participation. Germany and Austria have already developed the industrial combination to a high point of efficiency, with great offensive and defensive power, and under the auspicies of those Governments unlimited financial support was forthcoming before the war, and will be in the future to the limit allowed by depleted national funds. The resolutions adopted by the Allied nations in conference in Paris in June bear strongly in the same direction, for it was agreed that government aid should be given to inter-Ally enterprises and that government finance should participate in schemes for the development of the natural resources of all colonies and overseas possessions.

These things are not even entirely of the future, for the English Government has already invested public funds in trading enterprises that have taken over the whole business of import and export of not only Allied countries but of certain neutral countries of Europe as well. Ostensibly the reason for this is to prevent goods from reaching the enemy and to prevent private speculation in war material and the necessaries of life, but the probable permanent effect upon English trade after the war cannot be ignored, and it is more than likely that the coming of peace will not mean the abandonment by the British of all government participation in certain home enterprises and schemes for increasing British foreign trade. The people will have become accustomed to the idea, its advantages will have been made apparent, and it will be looked upon as a valuable aid in the reconstruction of the now disorganized foreign trade of the British Empire.

The effect of the war upon American foreign trade cannot be accurately estimated until normal conditions again prevail. The war trade means nothing as to the future, except perhaps from a financial point of view. America had the food and supplies wanted by the countries in control of the seas, and they have sent their ships after them. This export will be maintained in decreasing volume for some time after peace is declared; but when the more strenuous days of reconstruction are passed, then will come the test of competitive power in manufactured goods. If the vast machine shops now being operated in Europe by perhaps twenty million workmen can be turned to the production of goods for home consumption and export, as is now planned, American foreign trade will need all the encouragement and aid it can get to regain the position held before the war, to say nothing of increasing American sales abroad. If, in addition to this, the governments of the countries now at war set forth to discriminate in favor of the trade of their own peoples, as is now promised, and to discriminate further in favor of trade between themselves and countries with which they have been allied in this war, as is possible, the outsider will have to put forth considerable effort to get a satisfactory look-in.

America is now complacently regarding the figures of export of war material and supplies. It would be the part of wisdom to forget them in planning for the future. The countries now at war enjoyed in 1913 five-sevenths of all the foreign trade of the world, of which the United States held about one-eighth. Any movement intended to affect unfavorably for America nearly three-quarters of all international exchanges is to be taken seriously. This trade supremacy of Europe, making all allowance for greater experience, larger population, more intense industrial development, better transportation facilities, and greater foreign investment, has been largely built up by the encouragement of big business at home. That precedence in foreign trade is not a fixture is shown in

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the rapid rise of Germany in the years just preceding the war. At the outbreak of hostilities Great Britain was the only foreign trader that outranked Germany in the volume and value of exchanges, and that this lead was threatened by Germany is shown in the history of comparative gains made by the two Powers in the last ten years. The United States was passed by Germany several years ago, not only as to volume and value of foreign business transacted, but markedly so in the relation the export of manufactured goods bore to total export in the two countries.

At the present time the only really permanent features of American foreign trade that remain are the foreign organizations of American big business. These are now largely dormant, but they still exist intact, maintained at great expense and under many difficulties. When peace comes, they will again resume their former activity, but will meet with a much more determined opposition in Europe than before the war. No individual American exporter or small concern has been able to retain any hold upon the foreign situation during the past two years. Small business will have to rebuild again from new beginnings. How much more difficult it will be for the small operator than the big one can easily be imagined. European import duties are going to be revised, free-trade England will adopt some system of import taxes, there will be preferences within empires, reciprocal relations between former military allies, and a general "bucking up" within the countries now at war in the effort to stimulate home industry.

The American Government will be called upon to use its utmost skill in statecraft to prevent unjust discrimination against American trade and in the making of commercial treaties that will obtain such mitigation as is possible of the harshness with which the foreign trade rival is to be dealt by all the peoples of Europe after the war.

The most important question before the American people concerning the future foreign trade of the United States is to determine the degree of freedom which is to be allowed to American big business to meet these old and new conditions that will prevail. If every time the American industrial world devises a new form of attack upon foreign trade competitors, through combinations designed to meet similar combinations abroad, Congress is going to rise in its might and forbid it, as has been done in the past, we may as well confine our attention to home matters and endeavor to forget our dreams of an America dominant in the foreign markets of the world.

It is for the great industrials to say what legal power they need and for Congress to give it to them, with all due regard, of course, to the safety of American home interests. It is not a question of morality, it is one of business necessity. The time has also come when American foreign trade interests, Government and private, must learn the secret of team-work, for all the strength we can muster will be needed to prevail against the forces that are gathering for our discomfiture.

Horsham, England.

THE NEED OF TRAINED RESERVE ARMY OFFICERS

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM H. HOBBS
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

PERHAPS the greatest of all the handicaps under which the British nation has labored in its frantic post-peace war preparations has been the lack of trained army officers. Upon the other side, if we except the immense advantage in the vast hoard of war munitions, no feature of Germany's well-calculated preparations has counted for more than her superabundance of highly trained army officers of all ranks. This advantage has enabled her not only to officer amply her own vast armies and to make good their great wastage in war, but, further, to stiffen up the armies of each of her allies—Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria.

The Army Reorganization, or Hay, Bill, now generally referred to within the War Department as the Defense Act, became a law by the President's signature on June 3,

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though it did not go into effect until July 1. With all its defects, and they are many and vital, this bill contains provisions for the training of a corps of reserve officers admirably adapted to American conditions. This training of officers is planned especially for the students in our universities and colleges (senior units) and in the secondary schools (junior units). Experience has shown that in the event of war men of college education quite generally offer their services to the government and rise rapidly to positions of command, whether they have had previous military training or not. Hence the vital necessity of giving them a suitable military education if the frightful incompetence shown by the officers of our Civil War during the early years of that struggle is to be avoided in war with a nation really prepared.

Such provisions as have heretofore existed for the training of reserve officers have been the result of legislation enacted by Congress early in the Civil War, when the worst features of our military unpreparedness had become apparent. Under the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1862 and the supplementary legislation of 1883, 1890, and 1907, about one hundred institutions now give compulsory military instruction to their students, each under the direction of a commissioned officer of the United States army detailed for the purpose. Not quite one-half of these institutions are essentially military schools, the others being the so-called land grant institutions, which offer instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts, and in return for giving military instruction receive large annual appropriations from the Federal Government. Most State universities are included in the latter class, though the Universities of Michigan, Indiana, and Kansas constitute exceptions, for the reason that in these States the colleges of agriculture were organized as separate institutions.

At all land grant institutions the military instruction is the equivalent of at least three hours of work per week for a period of two years in the case of all able-bodied male students, the prescribed instruction consisting of two-thirds practical work (drills, etc.) and one-third theoretical (class-room) instruction. For the entire United States this instruction in land grant institutions was extended in the year 1914 to no less than 23,864 men; but in amount the instruction is confessedly insufficient for the adequate training of commissioned company officers of volunteers.

The law is further defective in that it provides no incentive for the men to advance in their military training beyond the limits set by the three hours per week for a period of two years. The original Morrill Act provided for training in what would now be looked upon as small institutions, and afforded no means of adjustment to the phenomenal growth which these institutions underwent in the post-bellum period. Though it is now recognized that four hundred is the largest number of men that can be given military instruction under advantageous conditions by a single officer, the various Acts of Congress affecting military instruction in land grant institutions restrict the detail to a single officer for each institution. In one State university two full regiments of cadets are under instruction at one time, and quite generally this difficulty has been met in the land grant institutions through organizing the more proficient cadets who have completed the military instruction required into a body of student officers and assistants, each of whom is paid a small salary for continuing the work through the remaining years of his college course. In addition to their practical military duties these cadet instructors undergo additional class-room instruction, and experience has shown that where the work has been well conducted they are fitted upon graduation to receive commissions as second lieutenants of volunteers. The University of Illinois, where the military department is of very high grade, graduated in the present year over forty cadet officers of this rank.

During the past ten or twelve years a rather remarkable change has taken place in the attitude of students at the State universities toward military training, and though the work was formerly rather generally regarded as drudgery, a spirit even of enthusiasm for military studies is now to be found in a very considerable number of these institutions. While this revolution is in part to be explained by the care exercised in selecting officers to take charge of the work, it is probably even more to be accounted for by the cordial support of the governing boards of the institutions themselves. In place of the suspicion and opposition and, at best, grudging support of faculties a decade or more ago, cordial co-operation with the authorities of the War Department is the rule to-day. Such support has been not merely moral, but has taken the practical form of providing funds for additional pay to the

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professor of military science and tactics, to the non-commissioned army officers who assist him, and a much larger sum for the salaries, prizes, scholarships, and medals, some or all of which are provided for the cadet officers who give assistance. Cornell University, which in this respect is much the most liberal of the State institutions, in 1915–16 provided the sum of $15,000 for its military department. Of this sum more than $8,000 is required for the salaries of the student assistants. In any other institution, however, where the work is no less satisfactorily accomplished for about the same number of students, the pay of cadet officers has not exceeded $2,000.

The effect of the Defense Act recently enacted by Congress will be at once to relieve the authorities in the land grant universities from the financial burden of maintaining their military departments. The limitations of the earlier legislation, which restricted the detail of army officers to one for each institution, are fully met by the Defense Act, which permits the detail of a commissioned army officer for each whole or fractional unit of four hundred students undergoing military training. The University of Illinois, with its 2,140 cadets, is therefore entitled to a detail of six commissioned army officers and nearly double that number of non-commissioned officers. This adequate detail of army officers and non-commissioned officers will make it unnecessary to continue as student instructors the body of cadet officers. As cadet officers undergoing additional military instruction equivalent to five hours per week throughout their junior and senior years, they will now receive from the Federal Government the equivalent of subsistence throughout that period, which, upon the average, will amount to about $85 per year. All cadets, if they should elect to attend the summer military camps conducted by the Federal Government, will have all expenses for transportation to and from the camp, subsistence while in camp, and all necessary equipment supplied to them by the War Department. Their uniforms while in training at the universities, which hitherto have cost the cadets about $15 each, will hereafter be provided at the expense of the Government. More than any other feature of the military training at the universities, this individual expense of the uniform has caused unfavorable criticism and complaint within the student bodies.

As regards those universities and colleges which do not come under the provisions of the Morrill Act, and this includes particularly the many privately endowed universities of the Eastern seaboard as well as the great State Universities of Michigan, Indiana, and Kansas, the Defense Act provides voluntary as opposed to compulsory military training financially supported by the Federal Government, and with an organization of uniformed military units as nearly as possible like those of the land grant institutions. In these institutions, as well as the others, the War Department will provide all necessary military equipment, including rifles and side-arms, artillery, public animals with caretakers, mechanicians, blacksmiths, etc., and will provide forage for public animals and all expenses for maintenance of such expensive equipment as is required for artillery units. The only financial obligations put upon the universities require that they provide bonds and insurance for the safe keeping and return of the equipment, and suitable quarters (armory) for the storage of the equipment and for the offices and class-rooms of the military department.

In order to secure the detail of United States army officers for military instruction in institutions having four-year courses leading to the bachelor's degree, the authorities of the institutions must agree to offer to election by their students military courses in two groups, which groups of studies, when once entered upon, become a requirement for graduation. The first group of studies applies to students of the freshman and sophomore years (but may be elected by upperclass men as well), and is the equivalent of three hours per week for two years, or, in all, twelve semester hours to be counted toward graduation. The advanced group of studies may be elected by those who have completed the first group, and is the equivalent of five hours weekly throughout the junior and senior years—twenty semester hours. Students who elect this advanced group of military studies will receive from the Federal Government the equivalent of subsistence (about $85 per year), and will most of them, no doubt, have the advantage of positions of command as cadet officers.

In order to secure these privileges from the Government, including the detail of the army officers, it will be necessary for the institution to organize its students who undergo military instruction into uniformed military

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units, whether artillery batteries, cavalry squadrons, infantry companies, engineer corps, machine gun sections, etc.; and there must be at least one hundred students in training. As in the case of the land grant institutions, the prescribed division of the military work is in the proportion of two units of practical work (drills, etc.) to one of theoretical (class-room) instruction; or, to speak more exactly, the drills and other physical exercises are weighted as ten, and the class-room instruction as four, in each group of courses.

Under this system of training, no student in universities of this class is under compulsion to elect military training in his curriculum; and, having elected this work, he incurs no other than an additional moral obligation to serve his country in the event of war. Those students who complete both the introductory military training (twelve semester hours) and the advanced work (twenty semester hours) are eligible at graduation to appointment by the President of the United States to be temporary second lieutenants; and, when so appointed, they are entitled to six months of service in the regular army with all the allowances of a second lieutenant in the regular army and with pay at $100 per month. They thus pass from the Reserve Officers Training Corps into the Reserve Officers Corps of the regular army, and with the transfer they incur for the first time legal obligations to service in the event of war. The vast majority will, it is expected, at the expiration of the six months' service enter civil pursuits, as do other students of colleges at graduation; but gradually through the operation of the Act the country should acquire a well-trained body of picked officers in each of the several arms of its military service.

HUMANITARIANS IN SPITE OF THEMSELVES

BY J. D. HACKETT

WHEN the manager of our old foundry called me into his office one day and said, "Tom, our accidents are costing us far too much; see what you can do to stop them," I was the maddest man in the place. "You want me to be a 'Safety Man,'" I gasped. "What do I know about safety? and, besides, how about my present work?" "I'll look after that," said the manager with a friendly nod.

The foundry was one of those drab symphonies in dust and smoke where, in the agony of production, flesh and blood were a side issue; but this situation was reconsidered when the cost of accidents increased to such an extent that our insurance company threatened to cancel its decidedly unremunerative policy. Thus the directors of our company were forced to become humanitarians in spite of themselves. That is why I was bundled out of one job into another in the space of a few minutes; something had to be done quickly.

From the statement of a problem to its solution is sometimes a long cry. My problem was a simple one in words. All I had to do was to reduce accidents, and so reduce their cost. Two ideas presented themselves, that of securing statistics and finding out what was the best practice in the most successful plants.

Unfortunately the United States lags far behind other countries in statistical information relating to accidents; but France, Germany, Italy, and far-off Russia provided exact records which agreed with my subsequent experience. In those countries they knew infallibly at what hour most accidents happened, and also the principal cause—the result of a careful study of myriads of accidents.

My researches disclosed the fact that when you know the cause, the location, the gravity, and the cost of every injury you are on the right path to effective safety work. You will doubtless, guard machinery extensively; but all the literature points out the fact that the royal road to success lies in the education of the minds of the men along safety lines.

My prejudice against the now happily defunct system of workmen's casualty insurance was confirmed by contact. It was the ordinary

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practice of insurance companies to ignore liability for serious cases and delay payment of compensation as far as the legal machinery would allow. Men for their part were often chary about asking for money, as they feared it would affect their standing with their foreman. If they applied, they were placed in the hands of an adjuster skilled in the art of smashing claims to nothingness or in that of delay if the workman had a good case. Sometimes the men lost patience and sued the company; legal expenses were heavy on both sides, bad feeling was engendered, and cases were seldom settled within two years.

In the case of minor injuries different tactics were pursued. The adjuster would settle promptly to get rid of a troublesome applicant. My first experience with an adjuster of this type is unforgetable. An incautious Pole damned a husky Irishman and was promptly floored for his temerity. It took him a week to recover, but in spite of the circumstance the Pole applied for compensation, and the adjuster, after haggling over the case for an hour, gave him $15. When I pointed out to the insurance man the injustice of saddling the company with a charge like that, he merely shrugged his shoulders and said that it was easier to settle the case and have done with it.

One day an agent was volubly assuring the tearful wife of an injured man that her husband had no claim, that the company was in no way responsible, and that such an accident could not have happened if the man had been careful. Just as these words left his mouth the office chair slipped and threw him sprawling on the floor. Notwithstanding the obvious absurdity of the situation, the agent went right on with his argument as if nothing had happened, and eventually persuaded the woman that her husband had no case. It was hard to get justice when all the knowledge was on one side and all the ignorance on the other.

My sense of responsibility for accidents such as the above was intensified by the fact that all injuries were reported by telephone, usually in exaggerated terms. The fear of disaster was so continually present that it impelled me to make periodical dashes around the factory looking for every possible source of danger. Here, it seemed to me, was a vast chess game in which the employees were merely pawns to be protected from capture by an invisible opponent, Accident. Some men, prone to accident through no great fault of their own, were put on less dangerous work. Others, who were making a business of looking for occasional damages, were dismissed. Heavy drinkers were often injured (their wounds healed slowly), and the fact that some of them had recently been employed impressed me with the necessity of selecting labor carefully. Without controlling the employment of labor, elimination of the "unsteadies" was difficult. Many of the bibbers lived in adjacent "hotels," where accommodation was sordid; and it was known that some of our old hands were drinking themselves to death. For the most part they were bachelors, gray-haired and forty, completely demoralized by their environment, and nearly broken down by hard work.

At last the time came when the selection of labor was placed in my charge. Up to this period it was customary for the foremen to go to the "gate" to pick out the help needed, and they did not take kindly to any interference with such a privilege. I felt it would be due more to good luck than to good management if I could escape charges of incompetence, favoritism, or dereliction of duty. These thoughts prompted me to employ no friend, relative, or even acquaintance. One of the older foremen, however, gave vent to his feelings by exclaiming, "What can a clerk know about hiring labor, anyway!" It was hard to blame him; he had been performing that duty for thirty years.

We had nearly two thousand men of a dozen different nationalities, and because they knew little English it was difficult to gather personal facts about them. Eighty-five per cent were either Russians, Lithuanians, or Austrian, German, or Russian Poles. The superintendent disliked the Russians because he listened to stories the Poles told about them. He failed to take into account the nationalistic difference between those races. It is said that the Polish element drifted into the locality about twenty years ago. One of the race got a job, then his brother arrived, and so on till a whole colony became established in the neighborhood. There they lived, in the shadow of a great city, without sanitation, without drainage, without street or house numbers, as if they were still in the suburbs of far-off Pultusk.

Our timekeepers, men of little education, had much difficulty in translating the unfamiliar foreign surnames into their local *patois*, so they called the men John Smith, or Billy Martin, or any other common name with

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which they might happen to be familiar. The foreigners had little objection to this; in fact, they found it useful at times to take the same liberty. One, Botilovski, was dismissed from the foundry and returned later in the day to seek work in another department, relying on the fact that he had changed his name in the meantime so as to secure admittance. On being discovered it was found that he had registered as Bluejay, a name which he had selected from some billboards in the vicinity.

While engaged in factory inspection I took care to wear "white duck," so that each workman who saw me would be reminded subconsciously of the safety business. As the foundry was full of smoke and dust, the men could not understand why I was at such pains to wear the only kind of clothing that seemed to be quite out of place. All such efforts were not without results; but still much remained to be done. Sanitation, proper medical attendance, suitable lockers, and meal-rooms were yet to be provided. Our sanitation, for instance, was primitive like that of the Poles, and it seemed incredible that the head of a concern like ours could give a quarter of a million in charity and neglect to solve the necessary sanitary problems in the concern from which his wealth was derived. Board meetings do not discuss such subjects, and possibly our president had no occasion to advert to the matter; but the city and State authorities were inquisitive, and it began to dawn on us that we were offenders against the sanitary code.

There were no eating-houses near the factory, and few men went home to dinner. Some sat on a barrel or a log of wood, or stretched themselves on the ground in the heat and dust. As the water was warm in summer and apt to be frozen in winter, they acquired the habit of securing beer from a neighboring saloon. The temperate few placed cans of water on red-hot metal or on pots full of molten slag. When the water boiled, they shook powdered coffee from small scraps of paper on the surface. Others hung shovels over molten metal as a substitute for frying-pans, and in a few minutes the sizzling stench would permeate the already polluted atmosphere. After the meal all the débris was left to accumulate or to be thrown into adjacent furnaces. Lunch-rooms would have been a great boon; but in the rush of work there never seemed to be time to consider such improvements.

About this time the fields warmed up, the pastoral lure made the erstwhile peasants uneasy, and they declared a strike for more wages. At this juncture the directors, for the first time as far as most of us knew, made their appearance. Hitherto they had been, as the Czar to the *moujik*, a great invisible power upon whose will our lives depended. One little director professed the most profound humanitarianism, and it looked as if the workers were about to step into a veritable paradise of wash-bowls and dining-rooms. We did not know then that he drew $20,000 annually from the company in dividends and that he never saw the factory more than once a year, though it was no more than five miles away. It was gratifying to know, when he died a few months later, that he had left a million to a hospital. The other directors were quite sympathetic at the time, till an enforced advance in wages settled the immediate issue, and we heard from them no more.

The son of a Polish foreman acted as interpreter and enabled me to get somewhat familiar with the language. The foremen themselves knew little of the language and were hardly able to give an effective warning in case of immediate danger. Though many toes were injured in the course of work, not a foreman knew the Polish word for toe. The Poles alluded to toes as fingers, and so it seemed as if time would not be wasted in the teaching of at least some common language. The full significance of this struck me in the following manner: I was watching some work in the power-house one day when a heavy chain-block started to fall. A machinist shouted a startled warning to his Polish helper, but, as the latter knew no English, the chain-block hit him on the head and laid him low. Later, by the use of a bilingual card, we were able to make men familiar with a few dozen of the commoner phrases in English and Polish. Up to this time there was not an English-speaking man in the plant who understood a dozen words of Polish.

A fatality in the plant at last demonstrated the advisability of having a doctor continually in attendance. Some time before, a fair-haired Russian died from heart disease while engaged in lifting weights, and similar occurrences might be prevented by proper physical examination. The superintendent asked me to look after this unfortunate man's funeral, so one dreary night I hiked off to the undertaker's establishment, where I found that the deceased was laid out in what seemed to me to be unnecessary grandeur. In an

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obvious effort to overcharge us the undertaker estimated the cost of the obsequies at $250, which was as much as the dead man had earned in the last half-year.

When the men were persuaded that the medical examination was in the cause of health betterment, they cheerfully submitted. Though many minor ailments were disclosed, one fact was plain. No matter how inferior the foreigner may be in mentality, physically speaking he is a wonder. Hard labor may undermine some constitutions; but, on the other hand, many of these men were not a particle the worse after many years of steady and strenuous work, though one old Pole maintained that it was the "steady hurry up" that killed. I have seen men look not a day older after ten years of heavy laboring work.

In some plants, and this was no exception, proper surface drainage is seldom considered. Workmen have often to stand continuously on damp floors, and rheumatism results. The plant's doctor, in such cases, relieves the sufferer and uses his influence to remove the cause. Thus the number of workmen who were absent on account of illness showed a marked decrease. In this way plants are preparing for the shock which the onward rush of health insurance will bring to the souls of suffering employers in the next few years.

Our industrial army suffers a horrifying aggregate of injuries in the course of a year. Humanitarians would be astounded if weekly lists were published. Red Cross Societies would hasten to study the situation, and caring for Europe's wounded would not appear to be such a vital necessity. A despatch such as the following might be published weekly by the Government in every city of the United States:

THE GREAT INDUSTRIAL WAR

Washington, D. C., Sept., 1916. The Industrial Army of the United States was heavily engaged during the week all along the line. The following casualties are reported:

Dead	673
Wounded	38,653

The safety army formed to protect the country from such a vast number of accidents is as yet small; but by "preparedness" in accident prevention this bad record could be greatly reduced, as our puny efforts abundantly proved. The State does much to guard machinery, backed up by a law which says, "All machines shall be so guarded as to be safe for all persons;" but it has not yet undertaken the training of men in habits of safety; until that time comes it must be only partly successful.

In statistical results we could show no such fine figures as were published by many large corporations that claimed sometimes as much as forty per cent reduction, but our failure was due to the practice of recording even the trivial accidents. This policy, though looking bad on paper, had a good effect, as we knew about every trivial injury and took care of it till cured. Previous to our efforts the cost of compensation and litigation was about $2,000 a month, but the first few weeks reduced that figure to $800, and after a few months we brought this down to a constant of about $300, or a sixth of the former figures. Much of this was due to the Workmen's Compensation Act, which, by its supposed stringency, stampeded employers into reforms which should have been part of the factory routine. They were terrified by the possibility of heavy damages; but safety work showed that prevention was better than cure.

The policy of prevention took unexpected forms. Employers, for instance, were compelled to banish liquor from their shops. I never quite realized the enormity of this traffic till I stood one day at the main gate and counted 550 beer-cans brought into the factory during the lunch hour. These, at ten cents a can, amounted to $20,000 a year, or about two per cent of the annual pay-roll. With such figures in my possession, it was easy to have a rule passed prohibiting men from bringing beer into the plant. Coffee, at two cents a cup, was provided as a substitute, and most of the men were glad to save the difference. In many homes the wives have no doubt been pleased at this small reform, provided the husbands have not made up for the alcoholic deficiency on their way home from work. Being a humanitarian in spite of himself is not such a bad thing for the employer, after all.

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A TALE OF FANTASY

BY HAMILTON W. MABIE

TO-DAY the peasants of Thessaly are hearing the thunder of great guns echoing among the mountains over whose flanks the centaurs, swift as the winds, once raced and on whose summits they stood out against the sky. They were so much a part of nature that they shared her radiant vitality, and they were so much akin with men that nature thought in their brains and spoke with their lips. They were strong with the unspent force of the earth, their mother, and they were wise with the wisdom born, not of knowledge, but of companionship with the silence of great hills and of heavens unblurred by the smoke of cities. Theirs was the primitive wisdom which comes before knowledge and must survive it when it has served its turn and no longer spreads a mist over the face of the world and beguiles men with the delusion that they know nature when they are merely organizing information about the appearance of things. Trained to know facts and absorbed in mechanical skills and activities, men have lost the sense of the fathomless life behind the vast order of things and have become specialists instead of poets. They have broken life into fragments and become the victims of the tricks and artifices of trades instead of the masters of life; they are buried under vast heaps of facts instead of breathing the air of the hills and renewing their strength in the splendor of the world.

This is the thought which Mr. Algernon Blackwood presses home in his eloquent, elusive, and daring story of "The Centaur."[1]

He has dealt with many difficult themes, but with none so difficult as this. He has thrown himself boldly on his imagination, and it has sustained him. To transform a man gradually into a centaur and give him the freedom of the mountains of Thessaly and the mythical strength of the centaur of Greek fancy would have been beyond the power of an imagination of lesser spread of wing than Mr. Blackwood's and an English style less capacious and resourceful than his. Of course he demands much of his readers, and those who cannot travel comfortably in clouds and on the summits of the hills will find little in him that will give them aid and joy; but those who believe that the modern world has parted with some invaluable resources by the way, and both in education and in the practice of living must regain the vision of the larger ends of life, will find his parable of the centaur invigorating and refreshing.

Eighty years ago and more Maurice de Guérin made a study of the centaur, which is still in insight and form one of the most exquisite interpretations of the Greek spirit. An old centaur, describing his youth to a man, says:

> Wandering along at my own will like the rivers, feeling wherever I went the presence of Cybele, whether in the bed of the valleys or on the height of the mountains, I bounded whither I would, like a blind and chainless life. But when Night, filled with the charm of the gods, overtook me on the slopes of the mountains, she guided me to the mouths of the caverns, and then tranquilized me as she tranquilizes the billows of the sea. Stretched across the threshold of my retreat, my flanks hidden within the cave, and my head under the open sky, I watched the spectacle of the dark. The sea-gods, it is said, quit during the hours of darkness their palaces under the deep; they seat themselves on the promontories, and their eyes wander over the expanse of the waves. Even so I kept watch, having at my feet an expanse of life like the hushed sea. . . . Then I beheld at one time the god Pan descend, ever solitary; at another, the choir of the mystic divinities; or I saw pass some mountain nymph charm-struck by the night. Sometimes the eagles of Mount Olympus traversed the upper sky and were lost to view among the far-off constellations, or in the shade of the dreaming forests. . . . For myself, O Melampus, I decline into my last days calm as the setting of the constellations.

This wide and deep tranquillity, born of that perfect health which is perfect harmony between the living creature and nature, Mr. Blackwood typifies in the centaur in whose eyes the gods are not strangers, and to whom the freedom of the mountains and the unbroken sweep of the stars are as familiar as day and night.

But centaurs are drawn out of the region of the myth and become living creatures racing along the mountains of Thessaly, and there Terence O'Malley, Celt in imagination and indifference to the faith and practice of his prosaic contemporaries, seeks them and extends or stretches his own personality to

[1] The Centaur. By Algernon Blackwood. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.40.

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take in their cosmic experience. His voyage from London brings him in contact with a man who already has this larger consciousness and with whom he finally clears his eyes of the dust which he was in the habit of saying blinded the eyes of men to the vision. He was useless as a citizen, for he was a born adventurer; but as a roving journalist he not only collected news, but "discovered, revealed, created it." He believed in a more fundamental faculty of understanding than reason, and preached a purified intuition, a spiritual intelligence divorced from mere intellectuality; he looked forward to a state in which man, with the best results of reason in his pocket, will return to the instinctive life, to a sense of kinship with nature.

"By the so-called love of nature," he said, "or by some artless simplicity of soul, wholly unmodern, children and poets . . . lie close to her own deep life, divinely mothered, strangers to all the strife for material gain, to that 'unrest which men miscall delight,' primitive children of her potent youth," and find their way to "the pure, vital childhood of the earth. . . . The torture and unrest of a false, external civilization that trained the brain while it left wars and baseness in the heart would drop from men like the symptoms of some fierce disease. The god of speed and mechanism that ruled the world to-day, urging men at ninety miles an hour to enter a heaven where material gain was only a little sublimated," would pass for the nightmare it really is.

So believing, he was caught up into the companionship of the free life of the centaurs on the ancient hills and regained the lost unconsciousness of a primitive age. Later, in his stuffy room in London or in a neighboring park, he told his great experience to a friend so far as it could be told in human speech, conveying not so much the details of things indescribable as their atmosphere and cosmic vastness. "The Centaur" is a fantastic tale never anchored in fact, but penetrated and made luminous by a truth of liberating and inspiring potency. In a time of war and turmoil and the roar of cannon it rests the spirit like a wind from the hills.

THE READER'S VIEW

BRACES AND HAPPINESS

[The following letter has come to The Outlook, with a dollar bill inclosed for braces for crippled children. We have forwarded the money to the Department of Health, City of New York, for the braces fund, and have the Department's receipt.—THE EDITORS.]

After reading your appeal for funds for braces for the crippled children who were crippled by the late scourge of infantile paralysis, it was suggested to me that only one who had worn braces could appreciate what it means. And this is my only excuse for adding a word in behalf of crippled children.

At the age of three months I was paralyzed and so was not able to use my legs. I could not creep, but pushed myself around on the floor playing with the other children. I was a happy little girl, and as my father spoke of my being lame as calmly as of my black eyes I took it quite as a matter of course. But many and incessant were the prayers I said, asking for legs that would walk.

I was taken to the most prominent physicians in New York, but none gave my parents any encouragement. "Keep her happy and well, but she will never be any better," was the verdict.

When I was five, a lady suggested Dr. Charles Taylor, and I was taken to him. He said, "I can have her walking in six months"—and he did. Well do I remember those first steps—how I cried for joy. And you will not be surprised when I say I was not the only one who shed tears that day.

Life now held new possibilities for me—school; the companionship of children of my age; a happy, normal childhood; out-of-door life, even sliding down hills, climbing ladders and trees. I felt that nothing was impossible now my legs were held in place. Once I even tried jumping rope, with no more disastrous results than a fall.

At ten years of age I made the trip from Dansville, New York, to New York City alone—and since then have been quite a good traveler. I went to college for two years, and now I am able to do as much as, and even more than, some women who have all their powers intact.

To-day, a middle-aged woman, should any one ask me what I could least easily give up, I would say, "My braces." The hardest days of my childhood were the repair days, when two little helpless feet hung down from my chair.

Thanks to braces, my life has not been a useless one, nor has it been unhappy. I hope, dear

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reader, I have given you a glimpse of what braces have done for me, and this bit of personal experience may be the means of letting those who never will need braces open their purses to provide braces for the poor children who will be robbed of most of the joys of childhood, and perhaps of usefulness in later years, if deprived of help. ELLEN R. BRODT.

Dansville, New York.

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN MEXICO

Will you permit me to call your attention to a certain inconsistency of statement in the article in The Outlook for September 6 on "The Church in Mexico"?

Commenting on Señor Cabrera's recently published pamphlet, you say that the "Laws of the Reform" which Carranza is endeavoring to enforce "provide for the separation of Church and State, the incapacity of the Church to possess landed property, and the abolition of convents."

Then, after congratulating Catholics of the United States for going on record in their recent convention in New York as demanding for their co-religionists in Mexico "liberty of conscience and freedom of worship as they exist in the United States," you make a statement that somewhat perplexes me: "If the Catholics of Mexico want only what the Catholics of the United States profess to want for them, they are asking for only what the Constitutionalists profess to be willing to give them."

But, as every American knows, all denominations in this country have the legal right to possess, and do possess, landed property; a right which Carranza and the Constitutionalists wish to take away, and, as a matter of fact, are taking away, from Catholics.

Moreover, as you state, the Constitutionalists wish to abolish all convents in Mexico. In our country the various orders of men and women who give their lives to the service of the Church, in various spheres of activity intimately connected with the happiness of mankind, enjoy the legal as well as the natural right to own and occupy their own dwellings and the structures necessary for the performance of their work.

When, therefore, we ask the Catholics in Mexico to be accorded the secure enjoyment of the same fundamental rights that the justice and common sense of the American people have continuously safeguarded in our country, we are unavoidably running counter to certain desires most dear to Carranza and others of his kind. It is very obvious that men of this character are no longer Catholics—if they ever have been—no matter how persistently and vehemently Señor Cabrera may claim that name for them.

I am prompted to write this letter because I have observed on certain occasions an effort on the part of The Outlook to rise above the blindness of bigotry and give Catholics fair play.

(Rev.) H. C. SCHUYLER,
Vice-Principal, Roman Catholic High School.
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

THE NEGRO VOTE AND THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE QUESTION

In an article in The Outlook of August 23, by Abby Scott Baker, there is one clause which I wish to call your attention to. "The Woman's Party" is the title of the article, and the clause is this: "A Federal woman suffrage amendment does not complicate the race problem. There are six million more white than colored women living south of Mason and Dixon's line, and two million more white women than Negro men, women, and children combined."

Of course this must be true, as Miss Baker certainly must have got data before making such a sweeping assertion; but she should remember that this Negro population is not equally divided, and while the white people could control the votes in some States, yet in other States the Negro vote would be three to one in the majority; and we people of Georgia cannot see why some of our sisters of other States wish to force an issue on us which would be a death-knell to the peace and prosperity of our particular section of the Union.

It certainly seems that after the fearful days which followed the War of Secession, when carpetbag law was shoved in our teeth, and the brave men of the South were forced to rise up and protect their wives and daughters from Negro supremacy, this alone would be a lesson never to be forgotten in the history of our country.

In my county alone we have three Negroes to every white person, and while we give the Negro educational advantages, yet the white man will control the ballot, and necessarily so, for the protection of his home and family.

We have already heard boasts of the social position from our Ethiopian friends should Georgia get suffrage. We would not force an issue on any section of the Union where it would be detrimental to that particular section, and we do not appreciate this effort to force a Federal law which would destroy the safety of the women of the South.

I am glad that those States where suffrage is needed and wanted are enjoying that privilege; but we do not need it in Georgia, and neither do the majority of the ladies want it.

Should this question be brought to a vote, our State would be a unit against the issue.

Eatonton, Georgia. ROSA TALBOT REID.

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BY THE WAY

The care with which cotton is graded in the market, and also the high price which that indispensable product is now bringing, are shown in these recent market quotations: "Middling fair, 15¾c.; strict good middling, 15½c.; good middling, 15¼c.; strict middling, 15c.; middling, 14¾c.; strict low middling, 14⅜c.; low middling, 13¾c." After these varieties of "middling," which seem sufficiently exhaustive, come similar distinctions as to "ordinary" cotton.

"The Electrical Scrubwoman—Brainless but Efficient," is the headline description of a new device for mechanical scrubbing. The machine carries brushes, soap powder, and water, and has a suction pump to remove the dirty water from the scrubbed floor, so that as the machine passes over the floor's surface it leaves it as immaculate as any housekeeper could wish.

In a window of "Soul-Saving Station No. 2" of the Baptist Women Gospel Messengers of New York City appears in large type this unexplained statement:

JESUS WALKED 72 MILES TO BE BAPTIZED

The passer-by, it is to be presumed, may draw the inference that baptism is a very important rite, and that it is to be obtained much more easily in New York now than it was in ancient Palestine.

Motor cycles may supplant cavalry in war. Compared with cavalry movements the motor cycle has done things, an exchange says, which seem incredible: "On Memorial Day a report was received at Fort Bliss of a bandit raid fifty-four miles away. Exactly two hours later the motor cycle company was on the spot. A few weeks later another raid was reported, eighteen miles from Fort Bliss. The motor cycle company reached this place in thirty minutes. The first trip would have taken a troop of cavalry two days and the second four hours to reach."

A leading brewer in Oregon, the Kansas City "Times" says, saw that prohibition was coming. He believed in the future of fruit juices, and before the prohibition law went into effect he stopped making beer and equipped his three brewery plants to make "loju," the juice of loganberries, and "appleju," the juice of ripe apples. The public liked the new drinks, and the three breweries are said to be running at full capacity in producing them and to be employing more men than formerly.

Father Stanton, a Church of England priest, was once, according to Canon Adderley, in the days before ecclesiastics became social workers, haled before the Bishop of London for taking some boys to a music hall or theater. "I could not help asking myself," said the Bishop, "would the Master have done this?" Stanton replied: "My lord, I was walking in Piccadilly the other day, and I saw a grand equipage with a coachman in a wig and footmen behind, and there was a Bishop inside. I could not help thinking to myself, 'Would the Master have done this?'"

Canon Adderley cautions young clergymen against the danger of making slips in extempore prayers. He mentions these as examples of unintentional blunders: "Parodoxical as it may appear to Thee, O Lord;" "For this, O Lord, is the correct reading of the passage;" "O Almighty God, very wonderful are the proofs of Thine existence;" "If there be a spark of holiness here, O Lord, water that spark!"

New Yorkers are familiar with the statement that theirs is a city of foreigners; the fact is sometimes brought home by trifles—as, for instance, a bulletin board seen during a recent stroll on Sixth Avenue. It served to advertise situations offered by an employment agency, and some of its announcements were written in Greek. An official announcement in Hebrew characters appears in Brooklyn elevated trains.

An English officer, so a "war story" runs, went out marketing for his mess in a French town. He bought his *poulets*, his *légumes*, and his *poissons* very cleverly, but spoiled his reputation for speaking like a native when at the end he remarked to the demoiselle behind the counter, "*Vous savez, c'est pour la Messe*" (*messe* in French = *mass* in English). The young woman's idea of what must go on at a "mass" in England, after this statement, would no doubt have astonished the officer.

As an example of fine writing, an exchange quotes a recent automobile advertisement: "It smooths out all roads, banishes for all time all mechanical troubles, and shatters to a hundred fragments all former motor-car limitations. . . . Here is an absolutely frictionless car—the Blank fairly floats along the road." If the advertisement writer who is responsible for this could meet the original "perpetual motion" man, the twain could doubtless solve that problem forthwith!

Signs of the millennium, in "Life's" opinion, would read as follows: "Children Are Perfectly Welcome in These Apartments;" "If You Don't Like the Show, Your Money Will Be Refunded at the Box Office;" "Tipping is Strictly Forbidden in This Hotel;" "This Attractive Penitentiary for Sale;" "The Management of This Café Will Be Responsible for All Lost Coats, etc.;" "The Millennium Publishing Co., Purchasers of Rejected Manuscripts."

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